LEADERS IN MAKING AMERICA

GORDY

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EADERS IN MAKING AMERICA

From a painting by Glenn Mitchell.

The Heritage.

LEADERS IN MAKING AMERICA

An Elementary History of the United States

BY

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ILLUSTRATED

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

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country which grows with true patriotism, and you will develop a sense of responsibility as American citizens. The same spirit which guided and inspired Washington, Lincoln, and other great Americans will guide and inspire you to give your best service to your country.

WILBUR F. GORDY.

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CHAPTER I

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, SEEKING AN ALL-WATER ROUTE FROM EUROPE TO INDIA, DISCOVERS AMERICA

THE PROBLEM FACED BY THE PEOPLE OF WESTERN EUROPE FOUR AND A HALF CENTURIES AGO

Let us imagine ourselves living in the city of Genoa in the last half of the fifteenth century. As we go about, we hear much talk of the far-away lands in the East, where there are golden palaces, beautiful rivers crossed by marble bridges, and countless treasures of gold, silver, and jewels.

Listening with breathless interest to these wonderful tales, we long to know more about India, China, Japan, and other Eastern countries, for they seem to us like fairy-land. So we eagerly take up the maps of the world which geographers of the day have drawn, but on them we find almost nothing except Europe, northern Africa, and the western part of Asia. The rest is merely outlined, an indistinct, unexplored region.

Even the wisest men of this time have little knowledge of the countries which later came to be known as central or eastern Asia, while Australia, North America, and South

America play as small a part in their world as the regions about the North Pole and South Pole do in ours.

Much talk is heard in Genoa about the increase of trade with the countries of the East, for the products of those distant lands have long been of great importance and value to Italy, the central market through which passes the trade of western Europe.

In Genoa and Venice live many merchants and ship-owners who have become rich from this trade. Great merchant fleets sail from Italian ports, loaded with such products as wool, leather, cloth, and furs. Homeward bound they bring from the Far East rich cloths, carpets, and rugs, as well as silks, spices, perfumes, and precious stones.

Many of these goods have to be brought on the backs of camels, horses, and mules in caravans all the way from Persia, India, and China down to the ports where the ships are waiting for them. We easily picture the long lines of these beasts of burden winding their way to the seacoast.

This method of transportation was slow and costly, compared with ours of to-day with our railroads and swift-moving trains. It was full of danger, too, for the caravans were often plundered by wild tribes and forced to give up part or all of their goods.

At one time there had been three main routes by which the caravans from the inland regions reached the sea. But the most northern of these, which passed through the Black Sea, was cut off when the Turks captured Constan-

tinople in 1453. This was a hard blow to Genoa, for her merchants had always used this route.

Moreover, in other cities of Europe also it was now feared that their trade with the East would be ruined should the Turks gain control of the other two routes, as seemed likely.

Men said: "We must do something to save this Eastern trade from disaster. A new route must be found—an all-water route—to the East."

How could this be done? Take up the globe and compare it with the world as geographers knew it then. How would you have tried to solve the problem had you been a brave sea-captain of that time? Think hard before you answer.

Portugal and Spain, the two nations that sent most sailors to sea, took the lead in searching for an all-water route to the East. Portugal set out to find it by sailing down the west coast of Africa. It was very slow work, but at last a bold sea-captain of that country reached the most southern point of Africa, and the King of Portugal named it the Cape of Good Hope. Can you guess why?

This was in 1487. Ten years later Vasco da Gama, another Portuguese sea-captain, reached India by sailing around the southern coast of Africa. He was the first man to find an all-water route to the East.

Other fearless seamen ventured far to the west upon the unknown waters of the Atlantic Ocean. About the year

1000, Leif Ericsson, a hardy Northman, sailing westward with a crew of thirty-five men, had landed on the shores of North America, probably somewhere on the New England coast, and had spent a winter there in rude huts. He called the country Vinland, on account of the grapes that grew there. Other Northmen had made similar voyages, but as no permanent settlements were made, these expeditions were forgotten and nothing of importance grew out of them.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS UNDERSTANDS THE PROBLEM OF THE AGE

Nearly five centuries later and before the Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama made his famous voyage, a daring sea-captain, sailing under the Spanish flag, had tried to solve the same problem by sailing west. You know him as Christopher Columbus. He was not a Spaniard. Let us see how it came about that Spain was the country to send him out and gain the glory for what he did.

Columbus was born in Genoa. His father was a poor man, who earned his living by getting wool ready for the spinners. We do not know much about the boy Christopher, but we may be sure that he was fond of playing on the wharfs near his home. Here he could see hundreds of vessels coming and going. He must have spent many hours watching their white sails. Most likely he was fond of the water, and while he was quite young he may have learned how to sail boats.

But he could not play all the time. Like other boys, he had work to do. While learning his father's trade, he also went to school, where he learned reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and map-drawing. All were of great use to him in later life. Often, while idling on the wharfs, he must have heard sailors talking about how the Turks had shut up the Black Sea route to the Far East, and about the need of finding a new route over the ocean.

He Was Fond of Playing on the Wharfs.

COLUMBUS LISTENS, STUDIES, AND BECOMES A SAILOR

When Columbus had grown to be a man, he went to live in Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, where one of his brothers lived. There, also, as in Genoa, were many sailors, and Columbus kept hearing more and more about the need of a water route to India and the East. He listened ear-

nestly to the sailors' stories; he studied maps and charts; he thought a great deal; he sailed on many voyages himself. He believed that the earth was round like a globe, not flat, as many said, and he tried to find proof of this.

After long years of study, he felt sure that he could reach India by sailing straight west across the Atlantic Ocean. He would go in the direction just opposite to that in which India was supposed to be. "The way to the East is by the West," said he, "and if I can reach India by sailing west, I shall prove also that the earth is round."

Again take up your globe and study it. But you must remember that Columbus knew nothing about North America or South America, and that he believed India was no farther to the west from Spain than the New World was later found to be. Although mistaken in this belief, his reasoning was good. Let us try to follow his story.

THE STORY OF COLUMBUS IS ONE OF STRUGGLE AND GREAT COURAGE

Columbus was not only poor but he had few friends. He kept saying to himself: "How can I get money and help to make my great dream come true?"

First, he laid his plans before King John of Portugal, who would make no promise to help him. Then taking his little son Diego (dē-ā′gō) by the hand, father and son started across the mountains to Spain. We may picture

them hurrying along the rough mountain roads, hardly stopping when the little boy was tired, so eager was Columbus to find some one to believe in him and provide the money needed for his plans.

When he came to a place near the town of Pa'los, he left Diego with an aunt, and set out alone to find the king and queen, Fer'di-nand and Is'a-bel-la. Columbus had a hard time getting them to listen to him, for at that time a war was going on in the south of Spain between the Spaniards and the Moors. At last they gave him a hearing. They had asked a number of wise men to be present. Some of them smiled at Columbus for saying that the earth was round like a globe. Others said: "He may be right." But the king and queen would not help him. Sick at heart, therefore, he planned to leave Spain and go to France.

Thus far he had failed. Men called him a crazy dreamer. Even the boys made fun of him when he walked through a village with sad face and threadbare clothing. Yet not without hope, and with faith in himself, he started bravely for the court of France, again taking Diego with him.

On his way, Columbus met with a good prior of a convent who listened closely to his story and to his plans and then wrote at once to Queen Isabella, who knew the prior and believed in him as a wise and good man. This letter proved a help to Columbus, for a little later the queen sent

for him, and promised to furnish men and vessels for the voyage.

COLUMBUS, THE COMMANDER OF THREE LITTLE VESSELS, SAILS ON THE SANTA MARIA

Yet even with the queen's help, he still had many trials before him. Sailors were hard to get, for they were afraid to go far out to sea. The ocean was unknown. But in

The First Voyage of Columbus, and Places of Interest in Connection with His Later Voyages.

the course of time three small vessels with 120 men were ready to start. The vessels were not larger than many of our fishing-boats to-day. The largest was the San'ta Ma-ri'a, upon which Columbus sailed.

A half-hour before sunrise on Friday morning, August 3, 1492, the little fleet put to sea from the port of Palos. It was a sorrowful time for the sailors and their friends. They believed that the vessels would be lost; that the sailors would never again see home and family; and when, a month

later, the Canary Islands had faded from sight, the sailors cried like children.

Constant worries lay before them. Soon the compass-needle no longer pointed to the North Star. The sailors did not understand and were terrified. A few days later the fleet entered a vast stretch of seaweed. They feared that the vessels would stick fast in the grass or run upon rocks lying just below the surface of the water. But when the wind blew up a little stronger, the vessels passed on in safety.

Entering the belt of trade-winds, the ships were steadily driven westward. "We are lost! We can never see our friends again!" cried the sailors, and they begged Columbus to turn about and try for home. He refused. They became angry, called him crazy, and even wished to kill him. They talked of pushing him overboard some night when he was looking at the stars.

Columbus knew his life was in danger, but he would not give up his high purpose. He still had faith and hope. The greater the danger, the more firmly he set himself to meet it.

At last, on October 11, birds and broken bits of trees, appeared. No one slept that night. Every one was straining his eyes to catch the first glimpse of land.

About ten o'clock in the evening Columbus himself saw a moving light in the distance. It looked like a torch in the hand of a man running along the shore.

COLUMBUS GOES ASHORE THE DISCOVERER OF A NEW WORLD

Early in the morning little boats were lowered, and everybody went ashore. Columbus was dressed in a robe

The Landing of Christopher Columbus.

of bright scarlet and carried in his hand the royal flag of Spain. As soon as he reached the land, he fell on his knees, and with tears in his eyes kissed the earth and thanked God for the safe voyage. He found a strange people, who worshipped the white men, believing they were beings from the sky and that the vessels with their spreading sails were huge white-winged birds. Columbus called the dark-

skinned natives Indians, because he supposed he was in the East Indies, and he named the island upon which he had landed San Salvador, which means Holy Saviour.

Sailing on, he reached the coast of Cuba, and thinking he was in Japan, he called the island Ci-pan'go (Japan). Here he landed and took up his search for the cities of Asia, which were said to be so rich in gold, spices, and jewels. But he found no cities; he found no gold, no jewels, and no spices.

On Christmas morning he had a serious mishap. While it was still dark, one of his little vessels ran ashore on a sand-bar and was knocked to pieces by the waves. Another of his vessels had deserted the fleet, and now he had but one left. On January 4, 1493, therefore, he sailed for Spain. After a very stormy voyage, on March 15 he entered the harbor of Palos. A day of rejoicing followed. The people stopped all business to give him a welcome. His praise was now on every man's lips.

Soon he went to Bar-ce-lo'na, where he was honored by a street parade. King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella sent for him. When he came into their presence, they honored him by rising. As he knelt to kiss their hands, they commanded him to rise and sit with them as an equal.

The idle dreamer had become a great man. Everybody was eager to share his honor and his fame. Many were now ready to join him on a second voyage.

In September, 1493, he sailed with a fleet of seventeen

vessels and 1,500 men. Some of them were from leading families of Spain, for they expected to bring back much wealth from the "Indies" and then to live as grandees. They reached Hayti, but they did not find the gold and jewels they sought. After three years Columbus sailed back to Spain. He made two more voyages. Returning from the fourth voyage, he arrived only a short time before Queen Isabella died. He had suffered many hardships and disappointments, he was broken in health, and felt that he had little to live for.

On May 20, 1506, he died of a broken heart, not knowing how great a work he had done. Up to the very last he believed he had only sailed to the Indies; he did not know that he had discovered a new world.

HOW THE NEW WORLD WAS NAMED

From what you have learned, you will probably think that the New World should have been named after Columbus. Why it was not, a few words will tell. After Columbus had led the way, many other explorers sailed for the West. Among them was Amer'i-cus Ves-pu'cius. How many voyages he made, and just when he made them, we do not know. But it is thought that he sailed along the coast of Bra-zil', or perhaps along a part of the eastern coast of South America lying south of Brazil.

The descriptions that Vespucius wrote about what he had seen in his voyaging were read by German geographers,

THE WORLD
showing
UNITED STATES
AND ITS POSSESSIONS
TO-DAY

60°
30°
0°
30°
60°
90°
C E A N
GREENLAND
North Cape
BRITISH ISLES
EUROPE
ASIA
ATLANTIC
NEWFOUNDLAND
Boston
New York
Baltimore
Washington
Mediterranean Sea
PORTO RICO
VIRGIN IS.
AFRICA
INDIAN
OCEAN
SOUTH
AMERICA
MADAGASCAR
C of Good Hope
Cape Horn
60°
30°
0°
30°
60°
90°
from Greenwich
Longitude
East

who liked them because they were so interesting. One of these geographers, believing that Americus Vespucius was the first man to discover the New World, called it America after him. Thus it came about that the land discovered by Columbus was called America.

Some Things to Think About

1. What was the problem of the age at the time when Columbus was seeking aid from Spain?
2. Why was it so important to find an all-water route to India, China, and Japan?
3. With a globe to help you, find out how Columbus came to believe that he could reach the Far East by sailing west.
4. Why did many people laugh at him?
5. Imagine yourself one of the sailors with him on his first voyage and tell your classmates about his trials.
6. How many days does it take for a steamship to cross the Atlantic today? How long did it take Columbus? How do you account for the difference?
7. Trace on the map or globe the voyage of Columbus and that of Vasco da Gama. Which seemed to be the more important at that time? Give reasons for your answer.
8. What was the great work of Columbus? Why was the New World not named for him?
9. Give as many reasons as you can for believing that Columbus was a great man.

CHAPTER II

THE AMERICAN INDIANS: A STRANGE NEW PEOPLE AND HOW THEY LIVE

It took the white men a long time to find out the habits and customs of the Indians. But let us briefly notice a few things about them before going on with our story.

They did not live in close groups like the people in Europe, but were scattered in many groups all over the country. Yet many of them were related, so that really they formed five great families. Those we know most about were the three living east of the Mis'sis-sip'pi River. They were the Southern Indians, the Ir'o-quois, and the Al-gon'quins.

Although the Indians of the different tribes did not look alike, we may say that, as a rule, they had straight black hair, small black eyes, high cheek-bones, and copper-colored skins. Their dress was made largely of the skins of wild animals. Instead of leather shoes, like ours, they wore moccasins made of skins.

Many of the Indian tribes lived in little villages made up of wigwams, each of which, small as it was, provided a home for one family. The wigwams were tents made of skins, mats, or bark. Sometimes a bear's hide was used to cover

the entrance. On the bare earth, in the centre of the wigwam, the fire was built, and the smoke was let out through

In Each Wigwam Lived a Whole Family.

a hole at the top. There was no carpet, but soft skins kept the feet out of the mud or off the frozen ground.

Some tribes had other kinds of dwellings. The Iroquois, for instance, built huge log cabins called "long houses," with rooms along the sides screened off by skins.

Some of these houses were one hundred feet long, and as many as twenty families with all their relatives could live in one of them.

The Indians of the Southwest had the strangest dwellings of all. They were made of a-do'be, or clay baked in the sun, and were called pueb'los. The chief ones were many times larger than the "long houses," and the people of a good-sized town of to-day could live in a single pueblo. There was one large enough to furnish homes for five thousand persons. Indeed, each pueblo was a kind of apartment-house, town, and fort all in one.

An Iroquois "Long House."

Some were two stories high, some were four, and others as high as seven stories. Each story was set back a little from the one below it, so that the roof of the first became the sidewalk, or street, of the second, and so on to the top.

Nobody ever called out, "Don't slam the door," to the Indian boys and girls who lived in these pueblos. For every one had to climb to the top of his home on a ladder

and let himself in through an opening in the roof. Can you guess why they chose such a strange way of getting into their houses? It was because they thought that if the entrance was on top, it would not be easy for an enemy to surprise them.

Sometimes these strange pueblos were perched high on

From the American Museum of Natural History, New York.

Southwestern Indian Group.

the cliffs to make it still harder for enemies to reach them. The people living in these strongholds were called cliff-dwellers. They built on high places because they were weak and afraid of their enemies.

The strong tribes always built their pueblos close to a river or lake. In this fish could be caught, and in the gardens near by the squaws could till the soil.

THE INDIAN BRAVE AND THE SQUAW

You may sometimes hear it said that the squaw had to do all the work. People who say this believe that the Indian brave was lazy, and wished to make a slave of his squaw.

A Light Bark Canoe Easily Carried.

This is not true, for the man had his own work just as the woman had hers. Hunting and fishing were his share; and any tribe whose men did not keep themselves trained for fighting and on the watch for foes would soon have been killed or made slaves of by some other tribe.

The Indian brave made the arrows, bows, canoes, and other tools which he might need. But he felt too proud to do what he thought was a squaw's work.

The squaw kept busy about the home. She cooked the

food and made the clothing. She tended the patches of corn, melons, beans, squashes, and pumpkins. In doing this she scratched the ground with simple tools like pointed sticks, or stone spades, or hoes. She also gathered wood, made fires, and set up the wigwam.

THE INDIAN BOY HAS TO LEARN MANY THINGS

The Indian boy did not go to a school like yours. His lessons were learned out-of-doors, and his books were the woods and the lakes and the running streams about him. By watching, and listening, and trying, he learned to swim like a fish, to dive like a beaver, to climb trees like a squirrel, and to run like a deer. As soon as he could hold a bow and arrow, he was taught to shoot at a mark and to throw the tomahawk.

He had also to learn how to set traps for wild animals and how to hunt them. He learned to make the calls of wild birds and beasts. For if he could howl like a wolf, quack like a duck, and gobble like a turkey, he could get nearer his game when on the hunt. He had to learn how to track his enemies and how to conceal his own tracks when he wished to get away from his enemies. He had to become a brave, strong warrior, and be able to kill his foe and prevent his foe from killing him.

For, after all, the most important part of his work when he grew up was to fight the enemies of his tribe. If he did

not make war upon them, they would attack him. So whether he wished or not, he had to fight.

HOW THE INDIAN TRAVELS

The Indian's way of travelling from place to place was very simple. When he was looking for fresh hunting-grounds or new streams or lakes for fishing, or when he was with a war-party, as a rule he went on foot. Sometimes he took a forest path or trail, but it was much easier to travel by water. Then he found his light canoe very useful. Two men could easily carry it, and even one could carry it over his shoulders.

In the winter, when the lakes and rivers were frozen, the canoe was no longer useful. Then, if the Indian brave wished to go far, he used his snow-shoes. These were two or three feet long and a foot or more wide to keep him from sinking into the snow.

THE INDIANS AND THE WHITE MEN TEACH EACH OTHER MANY THINGS

Before the white men came, most Indians lived very simple lives as hunters, fishermen, and warriors. They had dogs, but there were no native animals which they could tame to give them milk, like our cows, or to draw their loads, like our oxen and mules, or to carry them, like our horses.

Before the white men came, the Indian had never seen a sword, a gun, an iron axe, nor a knife made of metal.

But he soon learned how to use all these things. They made his life much easier, for he could get more food with a gun than with a bow and arrow, a stone tomahawk, or a hatchet.

You can see, then, that the coming of the white man greatly changed the red man's life. But the Indian also changed the life of the white man. For when the early settler went out into the woods to live, he found it best to live much as the Indians did.

He had to learn how to track his foe and how to conceal his own trail through the forest. He even dressed like the Indian. He ate the same kind of food, and, like the Indians, he many times suffered for want of food.

Let us not forget, too, that more than once when food was scarce for all, the hungry settlers were kept from starving by the food which friendly Indians shared with them.

Some Things to Think About

1. How was an Indian wigwam made? Perhaps you can make a model of a wigwam. What was the "long house"? Find out what kind of shelter the Indian used in your section of the United States.
2. What was the work of the Indian brave? of the squaw? Do you think there was a fair division of labor between them?
3. Imagine yourself an Indian boy living in a wigwam, and tell where you would learn your lessons and the things you would learn to do.
4. Tell all you can about the bark canoe and the snow-shoe and their use by the Indian.
5. How did the white man change the life of the Indian, and how did the Indian change the life of the white man?
6. Do you know of any Indians in America to-day? How do they live and dress?

CHAPTER III

SPAIN SENDS HER EXPLORERS AND LEADERS INTO THE NEW WORLD

A FEARLESS SEAMAN, FERDINAND MAGELLAN, FINDS A NEW ROUTE AND PROVES THAT THE WORLD IS ROUND

EVEN after Columbus discovered America, men did not know certainly that they could reach the land of silks and spices by sailing west. The honor of making sure of this belongs to Fer'di-nand Ma-gel'lan.

He was a Portuguese sea-captain. While a young man, he went to Lisbon, as Columbus had done. There he heard much talk about the great voyages in search of the Far East. One of these had been made by Vasco da Gama, who, you remember, in 1497 sailed around the Cape of Good Hope to India.

For several years Magellan himself had been going to India by that route, but it took too long, and after studying maps and charts, he believed that a passage through America would be shorter.

The king of his country refusing to aid him, like Columbus he turned to Spain. That country, pleased with having helped Columbus, provided a fleet of 5 vessels and 280 men. With these in September, 1519, Magellan put to sea.

Many dangers awaited him. He had to face heavy

storms, the fear that food and water might not hold out, and angry sailors, who were only too ready to do him harm and make the voyage fail in order to get back home.

But the ships sailed forward, and at length the fleet entered what we now call the Strait of Magellan, at the southern end of South America. On every side were frowning mountains. The sailors begged him to return. "I will go on," said Magellan, "if we have to eat the leather off the ship's yards." When, a little later, he passed out of the strait and beheld the ocean, he wept for joy. Still heading westward, at last they reached some islands, which are now part of the Phil'ip-pines. Here Magellan took part in a fight between some native tribes, and was slain.

The men who still remained, having lost their brave captain, pulled up the anchors and sailed westward for home. The voyage was a long one. Not until September, 1522, nearly three years after setting out with Magellan, did they arrive at the home port. Only one of the five vessels and eighteen starving sailors made a safe return.

Such was the sad end of the most wonderful voyage that had ever been made. Men knew now that the land discovered by Columbus was a great new world.

VASCO NUÑEZ BALBOA CLIMBS A MOUNTAIN TO DISCOVER THE PACIFIC OCEAN

Those who followed after Columbus found no spices, jewels, and precious stuffs, but they discovered rich mines

of gold and silver, and new fruits and plants. So others kept coming to seek their fortunes as mine-owners and planters.

Among these fortune-hunters was Balboa, who settled on the Isthmus of Panama. He had heard from an Indian chief that beyond the mountains was a great sea, and far to the south a country rich in gold, and he started in search of them.

On his way across the isthmus one morning early, he climbed the mountains. As he reached the top he saw stretching far away before him to the south a vast body of water. It was the Pacific Ocean. He had made a discovery great in itself and leading to the knowledge that America was not the Indies, but a separate continent. This was in 1513.

HERNANDO CORTEZ AND FRANCISCO PIZARRO ARE RUTHLESS FORTUNE-HUNTERS AND BRAVE CONQUERORS

Two other Spanish leaders, both brave and fearless, were Hernando Cortez and Francisco Pizarro. Cortez headed an expedition for the conquest of Mexico, landing on the eastern coast in 1519. Although his force numbered only 450 men, with this small army and fifteen horses he boldly faced the dangers of an unknown country.

Advancing toward the city of Mexico, he had to fight two battles, and he won both. The Mexicans were no match for the white-skinned warriors with their coats of iron and

their sharp swords. The horses terrified the natives, who imagined them monsters from another world.

The ruling people of Mexico were the Az-tecs, and their

Meeting of Cortez and Montezuma.

chief was Mon-te-zu'ma. On reaching the city, Cortez invited Montezuma to visit him. Though treated as a guest, the chief was in reality held as a prisoner. The people, stirred with sullen anger, fell upon the Spaniards with great fury, and after a week or so of hard fighting, Cortez had to leave the city.

But he did not give up his plan. In about six months

he returned with another army and compelled the city to surrender. He soon completed the conquest of Mexico.

Not many years after Cortez conquered Mexico, Pizarro, equally daring, made his name famous by the conquest of Peru. In 1531 he sailed with 350 men and 50 horses. Like Cortez, he found his little army greatly outnumbered by the natives, but through treachery he easily captured the chief, who was called the Inca. After the natives had filled a large room with gold and silver for the Inca's release, Pizarro brought him to trial and had him cruelly murdered. Thus was the conquest of the country completed.

Searching for the Fountain of Youth.

JUAN PONCE DE LEON, SEEKING A FOUNTAIN OF YOUTH, DISCOVERS FLORIDA

About the time that Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean, Juan Ponce de Leon (pon'thā dā lā-on') was gov-

ernor of Por'to Rico. He was no longer young and his health was poor. Having heard with eagerness of a wonderful fountain of youth on an island not far to the north, he believed that if he could drink of its waters, they would bring back his health and make him young again. With the consent of the King of Spain, he set out to explore and conquer the island.

Sailing north, he reached the new country on Easter morning, 1513. The land was so beautiful with flowers that he named it Flor'i-da, in honor of the day. He did not find the fountain of youth, but he discovered Florida and gave it a name.

DE SOTO, VAINLY HUNTING FOR GOLD, DIES OF FEVER AND IS BURIED IN THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER

So many sailors had gone back to Spain with wonderful stories of what they had seen and heard, that many were now eager to try their fortunes in the New World. Among these was Her-nan'do de Soto.

He was with Pizarro in Peru, and from there he went back to Spain with great wealth and honor. Hoping to find another land as rich as Peru and Mexico, he asked the King of Spain to make him governor of Cuba. The king did so, and also gave him permission to conquer and settle Florida.

De Soto easily found men to join his company, 600 in all, among them many gay nobles and daring soldiers. After

reaching Cuba and planting a settlement there, De Soto, with 570 men and 223 horses, sailed for Florida. Two weeks later, in May, 1529, he landed on its western coast.

Very soon trouble began. There were no roads, and the

De Soto Reaching the Mississippi River.

Spaniards had to make their way through thick woods, following the trails of Indians and wild beasts. Often they had to cross rivers and wade through swamps, not knowing where they would come out. The soldiers were hungry, for they had little to eat, and they had to fight the Indians much of the time. After a while some of them lost heart and begged De Soto to turn back. But he said: "We go forward." At last they reached the Mississippi, crossed it,

and marched north along its western bank, always searching for gold.

The following winter was long and severe, and their sufferings were almost greater than they could bear. De Soto himself gave up hope, and decided to push on to the Gulf of Mexico, where he could build ships and send for aid.

When he reached the mouth of the Red River, he fell ill with fever, and died in May, 1542. His followers, fearing that the red men might attack them if De Soto's death became known, wrapped his body in blankets and in the blackness of night lowered it into the dark waters of the Mississippi.

De Soto had come to America to seek a kingdom of gold. What he found was hunger, hardship, disappointment, and a grave in the mighty river he had discovered.

Some Things to Think About

1. Trace on the map the route Magellan followed. How did he carry out the idea of Columbus? What did Magellan's voyage prove? Why do we call his voyage a wonderful exploit?
2. Show on the map how ships may now pass from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean. Find out when the new route came into being and tell of its advantages over the old route. Why will some vessels continue to use the route through the straits of Magellan?
3. What was the notable thing about Balboa's discovery?
4. Do you feel that Cortez and Pizarro proved themselves more highly civilized than the people they conquered?
5. Explain how Florida received its name.
6. What was De Soto seeking in America? What must have been his impression of that section which is now southeastern United States?

CHAPTER IV

ENGLAND SENDS HER EXPLORERS AND LEADERS INTO THE NEW WORLD

JOHN CABOT, THE "GREAT ADMIRAL," IS THE FIRST GREAT SEA-CAPTAIN TO REACH THE MAINLAND OF NORTH AMERICA

At the time when Columbus sailed on his first voyage, another sea-captain, born in the same city as Columbus, also was planning to sail westward in search of the In'dies. This was John Cab'ot. He was born in Genoa, had his home later in Venice, but was now living in Bristol, a seaport of England.

He had travelled much, and had spent some time in western Asia, where he had seen a caravan loaded with spices. After he returned to England, he asked King Henry VII if he might go on a voyage of discovery, and the king gave his consent.

It was not until May, 1497, however, nearly five years after Columbus had first sailed, that Cabot put to sea with one small vessel and eighteen men. He sailed straight west, and landed on the coast of Lab'ra-dor.

He was the first great sea-captain to reach the mainland of North America, for Columbus did not do this until his third voyage, in 1498.

On Cabot's return to England he was called the "Great

Admiral," and was treated with much honor. The simple sea-captain now dressed in fine clothing, like the noted men of those days.

The following year, with six vessels, he made another voyage. Where he went, what he found, whether he ever

John Cabot in London.

came back, we do not know. But it is rather likely that he went to what is now Flor'i-da. On the strength of what England declared that he had discovered, she at a later time claimed all of North America.

FOR ENGLAND SIR FRANCIS DRAKE FIGHTS SPAIN ON THE SEA

It was many years after Cabot's voyage before English sea-captains sailed their vessels in the waters of the New World. One of these was Sir Francis Drake.

After the conquests of Mexico and Peru, Spain took from them great quantities of gold and silver, which she used in making wars upon other nations. She longed to crush England and bring that country under her rule.

A Spanish Galleon of the Sixteenth Century.

When English seamen were captured by Spanish seamen, some were thrown into dark prisons, some hanged, and others burned to death at the stake. You will not need to be told, then, that Englishmen hated Spain; and no one hated her with a stronger hatred than did Francis Drake. He spent most of his life on the sea, and for many years fought against Spain.

After making many voyages to the New World, attacking Spanish settlements and capturing Spanish gold, he was able by the help of some wealthy friends to get together a fleet of five ships. It was richly fitted out, his own vessel having a table service of gold and silver. He wore very fine clothes, for in those days distinguished men dressed more handsomely than they do in our time.

The fleet sailed in November, 1577. After many severe storms and dense fogs, three of the vessels were lost

and another deserted; but Drake would not turn back. Following the direction of Magellan's route, he sailed through the Strait of Magellan and passed northward along the western coast of South America. From time to time he captured Spanish ships laden with silks, linen, gold, and jewels.

Young Drake Watching Vessels Put Out to Sea.

When he was ready to return home, he sailed as far north as the island called Vancouver in search of an Eastern passage. Then he decided to sail westward to England by way of the Pacific. Directing his course to the south he entered the harbor of San Francisco for repairs before taking up the long voyage ahead. He stopped at the Philippines and other islands of the Pacific, where he traded with the natives and took on fresh food.

Drake Sees the Pacific Ocean for the First Time.

After exploring these islands, he sailed for the Cape of Good Hope, and reached the home port early in November, 1580, his voyage having lasted nearly three years. Drake was the second man and the first Englishman to sail entirely around the world. Who had done this before?

SIR WALTER RALEIGH WINS THE FAVOR OF QUEEN ELIZABETH, AND SENDS TO THE NEW WORLD AN EXPEDITION WHICH BRINGS BACK POTATOES, INDIAN CORN, AND TOBACCO

One of the foremost Englishmen that lived in the time of Drake was Wal'ter Ra'leigh (raw'li). He was born in a town near the sea in the southern part of England. He was a bright, wide-awake lad, full of life and fond of all outdoor sports. In his home town lived many old sailors, who

could tell him stirring tales of life at sea and of hard fights with Spaniards.

While he was still a youth of less than twenty years, he enlisted as a soldier in France and later, in Holland, joined the army of the Dutch who were at war with Spain.

Queen Elizabeth Knighting Drake.

Soon after his return from Holland, according to a famous story, he attracted the notice of Queen Elizabeth by a simple act of courtesy. One day when she was walking in the forest with her attendant, Raleigh happened to meet her. As she approached a muddy place, he quickly took off his beautiful velvet cloak and laid it down for her

to walk upon. This gallant act won the favor of the queen, and Raleigh rapidly rose to a high place in her court.

He was now a tall, handsome man, with dark hair, a high color, and blue eyes. He dressed in a splendid way.

On his hat he wore a pearl-covered band and a black feather decked with jewels. His shoes, also, were ornamented with gems. His richest suit of armor was made of silver.

Raleigh's wealth and his experience as a soldier made him wish to take part in the seafaring adventures that were so important a part of the nation's life. In 1578 he joined his half-brother, Sir Hum'phrey Gil'bert, in a voyage to New'found-land, with the purpose of planting a settlement on the coast of America. But this expedition failed.

Six years later he fitted out two vessels for a voyage to the New World. The queen was so pleased with the good reports from the new country that she named it Virgin'ia, in honor of herself, the Virgin Queen.

The next year Raleigh sent out a colony of 108 persons. Sir Richard Gren'ville was commander of the expedition, and Ralph Lane was to be governor of the colony.

Raleigh Spreading His Cloak Before Queen Elizabeth.

They landed at Ro'a-noke. But from the first the Indians were treated so harshly that they became very unfriendly. Food became scarce, and Grenville had to sail to England for supplies.

It was not long before all the settlers were discouraged

and sick at heart. Just about this time Sir Francis Drake with twenty-three vessels cast anchor near the island. He had come from the West Indies, where he had been plundering Spanish settlements, and was on his way to England.

Raleigh's Various Colonies.

He agreed to leave food and a part of his fleet with the colonists. But when a heavy storm came up, the settlers in their fear begged to return to England, and all sailed for home. They had found no gold, but they took back another kind of wealth in the form of sweet potatoes, Indian corn, and tobacco.

RALEIGH'S SECOND COLONY DISAPPEARS

Most men would by this time have lost courage, but Raleigh was too strong and brave to give up. Two years later he made another attempt. He sent Captain John White to America, with 150 men, 17 women, and 11 children, and they landed at Roanoke.

Like the first colony, in a short time these settlers made enemies of the Indians. Very soon, also, food became scarce, and they begged Captain White to go back to England for more. He did not wish to leave the colony, but he knew they must have food; so he sailed.

Almost three years went by before Captain White could return to Roanoke, for war was going on between England and Spain, and no ships could be spared. When at last he arrived, he found only some chests of books, some maps, and some firearms. What became of the lost colony, no one has ever learned.

Raleigh's work in America was over. Although he had failed to plant a colony, he had done something better. He had taught the English that they should not value the New World so much for the gold and silver they might find as for the homes they might build there for themselves and their children.

Some Things to Think About

1. What did John Cabot do for England? What people might have settled North America if Cabot had not made this voyage?
2. Why did Drake and other Englishmen hate Spain?
3. In what ways did Drake harm the Spaniards?
4. What important thing did he accomplish? Trace Drake's great voyage on the map.
5. Why did Raleigh's two colonies fail? Locate Roanoke on the map.
6. What did he teach the English people? What do you think of him and of his work?
7. In what ways did Drake and Raleigh show themselves more worthy than Cortez and Pizarro?

CHAPTER V

STORIES OF EARLY VIRGINIA, MARYLAND, AND GEORGIA

THE SETTLEMENT OF JAMESTOWN

TWENTY years passed before any one tried again to plant a settlement in America. Then a group of merchants, nobles, and sea-captains, called the London Company, made another attempt, still hoping, however, to become rich by discoveries of gold and silver and by building up trade.

As a beginning, the company sent out 105 men. But they were not the right kind to settle a new country. About half of them had never done any rough work, and were quite unfitted for the hardships that awaited them.

They set sail from London on New Year's Day, 1607, in three frail vessels. After a voyage of four months they entered Ches'a-peake Bay and sailed up a beautiful river whose banks were blooming with the flowers of a southern May. They named the river James, in honor of the King of England.

Fifty miles from its mouth they landed and picked out a place in which to settle, naming their settlement James'-town, after their king. Remember this town, because it is the oldest English settlement in America.

You can imagine that when people come to live in a new land there is a great deal to do. They must first provide shelter. These settlers began by putting up rude huts covered with bark or turf, although some made tents of old sails, and others merely dug holes in the ground.

Trouble began at once. It was very hot in the new country, and the damp, unhealthy air rising from the undrained swamps brought disease. Many fell ill, and sometimes three or four died in a single night. In their long voyage across the ocean they had used up most of their food, and now a cupful of mouldy wheat or barley was each man's daily allowance. To make matters even worse, the Indians were unfriendly, and very soon attacked them, killing one and wounding eleven of their number.

After that, the settlers took turns as watchmen. Each man had to be on duty every third night to guard against attack, and lying on the damp, bare ground caused more illness. Sometimes there were not five men strong enough to carry guns.

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH MAKES FRIENDS OF THE INDIANS

During the summer about half the colonists died. Perhaps none would have lived but for one brave and strong man. This was John Smith.

According to his own account, he had already passed through many dangers in foreign lands, often narrowly escaping death. Returning to England, he was just in

time to join these men coming to Virginia. Being fearless and quick to think, he proved a great help to the colonists during this hard summer.

John Smith.

When the cooler days of autumn set in, the future looked much brighter. There was more food and less sickness. Game began to run in the woods, garden vegetables ripened, and water-birds and fish were plentiful.

With the colony in better condition, Smith thought he ought to be looking for a passage to the "South Sea," as the London Company had ordered. You see, men were still searching for the shorter route to the East, and many even then believed that the Pacific Ocean lay just beyond the mountains west of Jamestown.

It was December when Smith started out to explore, and the weather was cold. After some days he reached the Chick-a-hom'i-ny River. When the water became too shallow for his boat, he changed into a light canoe, and with two white men and two Indian guides paddled on upstream. Before long they landed, and he was captured by the Indians.

Of what happened to him during the next few weeks,

you may be sure he made an exciting story. He said the Indians took him to their chief, Pow-ha-tan′, and were about to kill him when just at that moment the chief's little daughter, Po-ca-hon′tas, rushed forward and, throw-

John Smith and Pocahontas.

ing her arms about his neck, begged her father to spare his life. Powhatan did so, and adopted Smith into the tribe.

Three days later, when Smith, after being away about two weeks, was allowed to return to Jamestown, he found the settlers were out of food. But that very day Captain Newport arrived from England with fresh supplies and with 120 new colonists.

Pocahontas, also, along with a band of Indian braves,

soon came to the settlement, bringing baskets of corn, wild fowl, and other kinds of food. What a good friend and peacemaker the little maid was!

The following summer Smith made another expedition, in which he was more successful. The Indians were not unfriendly, and he was able to make some valuable maps. He explored the Potomac River and various parts of Chesapeake Bay.

On his return to Jamestown (September, 1608), he was made president of the council. Since there was but little food, careful management was necessary. He laid down the law that "To save ourselves from starving, every man must turn to and help by working. He who will not work shall not eat." And every man had to obey the new rule. Although the lazy settlers did not like it, they set to work cutting down trees, building houses, clearing up the land, and planting corn.

As we should expect, the outlook grew brighter, but on account of a wound Smith had to return to England.

"THE STARVING TIME," AND THEN COMES LORD DELAWARE

When Smith left, Jamestown had a population of 500. Shortly after he had gone, the Indians began to rob and plunder the settlers, and even killed some of them.

Cold weather set in, and there was much sickness and suffering. Sometimes several died in one day. To make matters worse, before the end of the winter there was no food.

The starving men tried in vain to live on roots and herbs, and then were driven to eat their dogs and horses. At the end of this dreadful winter, which was called "the starving time," only 60 of the 500 men were left alive.

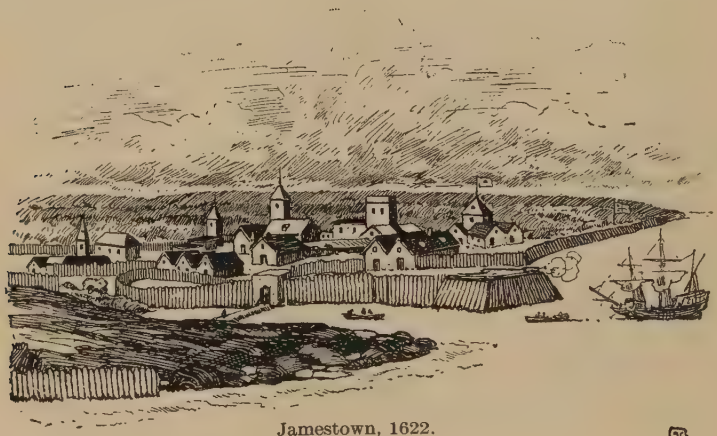
Landing of Lord Delaware.

Late in the spring a little vessel arrived from England with more men. They found the settlers so weak that they could hardly walk, and quite unable to do any work. We may be sure they were glad to give the newcomers a warm welcome.

But as the ship brought little food, they all decided to sail away to England. Then, before they reached the mouth of the James River, they met Lord Del'a-ware.

He was the new governor, and had come with three ships bringing men and supplies. So they turned back, and the colony was saved.

Lord Delaware made wise laws, and everybody seemed ready to obey them. Again, however, just as the settlers



Jamestown, 1622.

were becoming hopeful, misfortune overtook them. The governor had to go back to England because he was not well.

Sir Thomas Dale was left in charge of the colony. He was a stern ruler, but he made one very good change. Ever since coming to Jamestown, the colonists had kept up the foolish plan of having one large storehouse which they used in common. That is, every man put in what he raised, and took out what he needed.

As you might expect, the lazy men let the others do the work for them. But by the new plan, which Dale began,

each of the settlers was to have three acres of land for himself, and was to turn into the common storehouse only six bushels of corn a year. The rest of his crop he could use as he pleased.

This was much fairer. The lazy men had to get to work or starve, while the good workers raised so much that the colony after that not only had all it needed but could sell to the Indians.

Another change that worked well was a new way of making laws. Up to this time the settlers had had nothing to do with managing the affairs of the colony. But in 1619 a new charter allowed each settlement—there were now eleven—to send two men to an *Assembly* to help make laws for all.

Now that each man could keep for himself what he earned and have a share in making the laws, a better class of settlers were coming to Virginia. Men with families were willing to take their chances in the new country.

Up to this time most of the men who came over were not married. Of course they expected to remain only a while and then return to England. But if they had their own homes they would be likely to settle for good in Virginia.

Early in 1620 the London Company sent out a new kind of cargo. It was ninety young women to become wives of the settlers. Each settler, however, had to win the consent of the maiden he chose for his bride.

HOW TOBACCO-GROWING BRINGS ABOUT PLANTATION LIFE

The colonists found that more money could be made by raising tobacco than in any other way, so they planted many acres of it. But as tobacco would not grow year after year in the same soil, the planters had to own a great deal of land, and these holdings were called plan-ta'tions. To care for them there was need of many workers. To meet it poor boys and girls were brought over from England and bound to service until they should grow up. Later, men came who had agreed, before starting, to work a certain number of years for those who paid their passage. These were called indentured servants.

A Virginia Planter.

Finally some negroes were brought to Virginia. Twenty came from Africa in a Dutch vessel (1619) and were sold as slaves. But it was a long time before the number of slaves increased very much.

The plantations lay, for the most part, along the many rivers in eastern Virginia, where each planter could have his own wharf and load his tobacco for market.

The vessel which took the tobacco to England brought back such things as chairs and tables, pots and kettles,

axes, hoes, ploughs, and clothing. In fact, for years after Jamestown was settled, almost everything that the planter needed for his house and his plantation was brought from England by vessel to his wharf.

Vessel at Wharf Receiving Tobacco.

Since the plantations were so large and so far apart, no large towns grew up. But the many rivers and smaller streams made it possible for the planters to visit one another. If they could not go by water, they would ride on horseback over bridle-paths through the forests.

LORD BALTIMORE SENDS THE ARK AND THE DOVE WITH SETTLERS TO PLANT THE MARYLAND COLONY

At the time when the Jamestown settlers were having their hardest struggle with disease, famine, and Indians, the Catholics in England were also having trouble on account of their religion. Some were fined and others were thrown into prison for not obeying the laws about public worship.

One of their number, George Calvert, Lord Bal'ti-more, resolved to plant a settlement in the New World where the Catholics could worship God in their own way without being punished. King James was his friend and gave him a grant of land in New'found-land; but it was too cold there.

Lord Baltimore then received the permission of the new king, Charles I, the son of King James, to plant a colony in the lands lying north of the Po-to'mac. But Lord Baltimore died before he could carry out his plan, and his son, Cecil Calvert, succeded him.

In November, 1633, two of Baltimore's vessels, the Ark and the Dove, sailed from England with between two and three hundred settlers. Only twenty of these called themselves "gentlemen"; the rest were used to work. They had with them a good supply of food and tools.

After a voyage of over three months, and a few days of rest at Point Comfort, in Virginia, they reached the Potomac. Near its mouth they landed on a little wooded island, and planted a cross as a sign that it belonged to a Catholic people.

Sailing a few miles up the river, they entered a broad, inviting bay, which proved to be the mouths of some little streams. There was a good landing near its head, and they chose it for their first settlement. They named it St. Mary's, and the bay St. Mary's "River." The colony Lord Baltimore later called Mary-land, after the queen, Hen'ri-et'ta Ma-ri'a.

Friendly Indians, Crowding the Banks, Gazed in Wonder at the Huge Ships.

They found the Indians friendly, and bought from them a tract of land, paying for it with axes, hoes, and cloth. Of course you know the Indians could not use money.

As in Virginia, nearly all the people lived on plantations, most of which were connected by water. Travel was chiefly

Early Settlements in Virginia and Maryland.

by boats and canoes, or on horseback, as there were no roads for carriages.

Strangers always found a welcome in the settler's home. It was pleasant to get news from the outside world, for you must remember that there were no newspapers then. At night, when the candles were lighted and the logs were burning in the open fireplaces, stories true or made up were always sure of eager listeners.

As in Virginia, plantation life left no chance for towns to grow. For many years St. Mary's, the capital, was the only town in Maryland, and for a long time this was little more than a village.

JAMES OGLETHORPE, A MAN OF HUMANE SPIRIT, FOUNDS THE COLONY OF GEORGIA

In the days of which we are speaking, there were other troubles which needed righting besides those of religion. The laws about debt were very severe. When a man could

not pay what he owed, even if it was only a small sum, he was thrown into prison, and many men died there in hopeless misery.

Among those of high position who had a deep interest in helping these unfortunate debtors was James O'gle-thorpe, a noble and tender-hearted man. He had been a brave soldier and was now a member of the English House of Commons.

His plan was to raise money to set free the most worthy debtors, if they would agree to go to America. "There," said this kind man, "they can begin life over again."

When the plan was complete there were other worthy poor, all men of excellent character, who were permitted to join the enterprise. Besides helping poor men the colony had another purpose. Located far to the south it was to serve as an outpost of defense against the Spanish settlements of the border and against unfriendly Indians.

In January, 1733, Oglethorpe landed on the coast of South Carolina, where he was cordially welcomed. Choosing a high bluff on the southern bank of the Savannah River, he made a settlement and called it Savannah. He named the colony Georgia, in honor of King George II.

Oglethorpe took up his quarters in a tent, sheltered by four beautiful pine-trees, and there he lived for more than a year.

Like Penn, he won the friendship of the Indians by fair treatment. One day, soon after the arrival of the English, an Indian chief from a near-by tribe appeared and handed

him a buffalo skin, on the inside of which was a picture of the head and feathers of an eagle. "Here is a little present," he said. "The feathers of the eagle are soft, and this means love. The skin of the buffalo is warm, and this means protection. Therefore love and protect our little families." Such was the beginning of a lasting friendship between Oglethorpe and the Indians upon whose land he had settled.

To give occupation to the men and to bring money into the colony he began a trade in furs with the Indians. Then, since there were many mul'ber-ry-trees growing in Georgia, he started the raising of silkworms; for, as you know, they feed upon mulberry leaves. After a little the people began to weave silk, and they were quite proud to send a dress pattern to the English queen, who had it made into a gown. The soil was also cultivated. At intervals colonists continued to arrive, and several strong settlements grew up.

Oglethorpe honestly and unselfishly tried to do everything possible for the good of the settlers; but there were certain regulations which they regarded as hardships. For instance, they had no share in making the laws; no rum was allowed because Oglethorpe thought it would bring harm to the people; and negro slaves were not permitted in the colony.

The settlers, however, said they needed rum, and that the climate was so hot and bred such fevers that they must have negroes to do the work. It was true that in raising crops Georgia fell behind the neighboring colonies, where slaves were employed to till the soil.

At last the people were allowed to have their own way; the land laws were also made better, and the colony then advanced in prosperity.

The founders of Georgia may have made mistakes in managing the colony, but they were upright and earnest for the best interests of the people. In 1752, it became a royal province, and industries steadily grew, giving promise of the place that Georgia was to take among the great states of our Union.

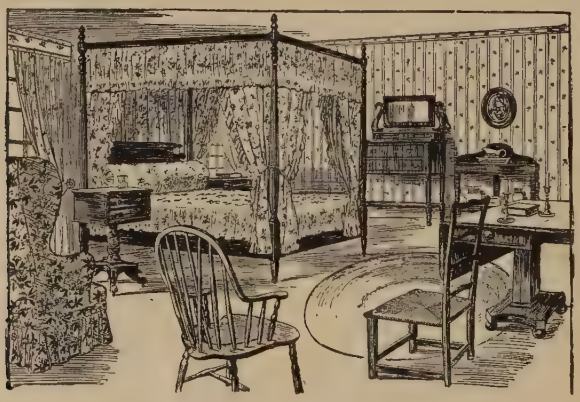
A PICTURE OF LIFE IN THE SOUTH IN EARLY COLONIAL DAYS

Now that we have seen something of how the colonies of the South started, let us go on a make-believe visit to their homes.

The first houses of the early settlers were simple cabins, but at the time of our visit, there are many rich planters living in two-story houses of wood or brick. Very pleasant they look with their vine-clad porches in front and wide hallways inside. They are called man'sions.

Near the planter's house are little cabins, squatting in the midst of gardens and poultry-yards. These are for slaves, and about them the little black children romp and play at all hours of the day. There, also, are the stable, the barn, the smoke-house, and other needed buildings, so that each plantation is a little village by itself, with its own blacksmith, wheelwright, shoemaker, doctor, overseer, and so on.

If we are invited into the "big house," we shall not find carpeted floors, unless our visit is made a hundred years or so after the first settlement. But we may find rugs and handsome furniture—tables, sideboards, four-post bedsteads, and other pieces bought from English merchants. The family use pewter dishes every day, but there are some shining silver pieces on the sideboard.



Tables, Chairs, Four-posted Bedstead.

The cooking is done over a fireplace, and cakes of corn-meal, or "pones," are baked in the hot ashes.

We see the spinning-wheel and flax-wheel in many homes. There are also moulds in which candles are made; for candlelight is the only evening light, except that from the blazing wood in the fireplace. Yet much of the clothing and many of the utensils for house and farm are brought from England, in exchange for the planter's tobacco.

It may be our good luck to see a ship from England come in while we are here. At these times everybody is excited and happy. For the ship brings not only needed things for which the people have been waiting, but also news from friends in the mother country, and sometimes, best of all, the friends themselves. Then there are glad meetings and everybody talks and laughs at once.

We cannot go to school with these children, for on these big plantations they live too far apart to attend a common school. Many of the poorer children are growing up without learning to read and write. But perhaps the planter's children will show us how they study. They are taught at home by tutors or clergymen. When they grow older, some of the boys will go to England to study further.

There are many men in the South who read a great deal; for the work of their plantations is carried on by others and some have fine libraries.

They are very fond of riding to the hunt. The wild woods are full of game, and no Southern youth is thought manly until he is a good rider and hunter. How exciting is the meet when the hounds in full chase follow the fox and the horsemen follow the hounds, riding at full speed and jumping ditches and fences in their path!

On the day of a horse-race people come flocking from far away. Besides the horse-race, there are hurdle-races and other lively sports, with greased poles and greased pigs, to entertain the crowd.

These people of the South do not keep Thanksgiving Day, but they make much of Christmas. Then all is gay and bright in the planter's house. There is great feasting, and in the evening it is followed by dancing and music. What a pretty sight it is!

Some Things to Think About

1. What object did the London Company have in mind at first in making a settlement in America? Do you think the Company was wise in its choice of settlers?
2. Find the position of Jamestown on the map. What advantages would it seem to have for a settlement? What disadvantages?
3. What did the first settlers expect to do? How did they live the first summer at Jamestown? Tell about their houses, their food, and their sufferings.
4. What kind of man was John Smith, and how did he help the people of Jamestown?
5. What did little Pocahontas do for Smith, and how did she help the settlers in their time of need?
6. Tell how Governor Dale modified the plan of the common storehouse. Why was his plan a good one?
7. Why did the Virginia settlers raise so much tobacco and live on plantations? Why did most of the plantations face some river?
8. Why did Lord Baltimore wish to plant a settlement in the New World?
9. Why were towns small and few in number in Maryland and Virginia?
10. Why did James Oglethorpe wish to plant a colony in America?
11. How did he make friends of the Indians?
12. What made him think of raising silkworms?
13. What do you admire in Oglethorpe?
14. Imagine yourself visiting in the Southern colonies in the early days, and tell all you can about the planter's house and its surroundings.
15. How did the people amuse themselves in the South?

CHAPTER VI

THE PILGRIMS AND PURITANS MAKE SETTLEMENT IN NEW ENGLAND

THE PURITANS LOVE THEIR CHURCH BUT WISH TO WORSHIP MORE SIMPLY

DURING the period we are studying there were many people in England who loved the Church of England but wished to worship more simply. They were called Pu'ritans.

Some of them disliked the forms of worship so much that they left the Church of England to have a church of their own. Later they came to be called Pil'grims because, as we shall see, for the sake of their religion they journeyed about so much.

Before they left England, these people met for Sunday service in the home of William Brewster, one of their leading men. He lived in the little village of Scroo'by. For a year they tried to worship by themselves. But the law did not permit secret meetings. And when they were found out they were punished and some were thrown into prison.

This was hard, and after a while they made up their minds to leave England and seek homes in Hol'land, where they knew they could worship God as they pleased. But as the king was unwilling to let them go, it was not easy

for them to carry out their plan. Yet in 1608, a year after the settlement of Jamestown, they managed to get away and sail to Am'ster-dam, moving later to Ley'den (lī'den).

Even after they had been in Holland for many years, they still loved England, and did not get over longing for the English ways of doing things. It made them sad to see their children growing up as Dutch children, and speaking Dutch instead of English.

Finally they said: "We will go to America, where we can worship God and bring up our children in our own way."

But the English king was not willing to let them settle in America. Besides, they were poor, and found it hard to raise money for the voyage. At last the king promised he would not trouble them in America if they did nothing to displease him there.

So the money needed for the voyage was borrowed, and after a long time a company was made ready to leave Holland.

They sailed in a little vessel called the Speed'well. But not all of them could go—some were too old and weak—and the parting was a sad one. When good-bys were said, we may be sure that many eyes filled with tears. The pastor, who stayed in Holland, knelt on the shore and asked God to bless those of his flock who were going to the far-off land.

At Ply'mouth, England, the Speedwell was joined by a rather larger vessel, the May'flow-er. Twice the vessels started, and twice they had to put back because the Speed-

well leaked. Finally the Speedwell was left behind and as many as possible were crowded into the Mayflower.

At last, on September 6, 1620, the final start was made.

From a painting by Charles W. Cope.

Departure of Pilgrim Fathers from Delft Haven, 1620.

There were about one hundred people on board, among them twenty boys and eight girls.

It was a perilous journey. Day after day heavy storms and high winds tossed the boat about as if she were a cork. The sails were torn, and at times it seemed as if the little vessel would be lost in the great waves. Surely the Pilgrim boys and girls must have been homesick for the safe though simple life they had left behind.

In spite of storms, however, the ship arrived at the end of her voyage on Saturday, November 21, and anchored in what is now called the harbor of Prov'ince-town. They had been sixty-four days in crossing the At-lan'tic, a trip which our great steamships to-day make in less than a week.

THE PILGRIMS SEARCH EARNESTLY FOR A HOME

What thoughts must have come to these brave men and women as they caught the first glimpse of the strange new land which was to be their home! How tired and lonely they must have felt! Not a house nor a human being in sight! Only sand-hills and trees and dreary stretches of deep snow! Yet they had faith in God's care and were not afraid.

Before any one landed, the Pilgrim fathers gathered in the cabin of the Mayflower, and agreed to stand together and obey such laws as they might pass later. They elected John Car'ver as their governor and Captain Miles Stan'dish as their military leader. Captain Standish was not a Pilgrim, but he liked these brave men and enjoyed adventure. Although a small man, he was active and daring. He was also a good soldier, and was a great help to the Pilgrims in meeting the dangers of their new life.

Without delay a few of the men, with Miles Standish as leader, went ashore to look for a place to settle.

HOW THE PILGRIMS SPEND THE FIRST WINTER IN PLYMOUTH

A month passed before they chose Plymouth for their new home and began to build their little village. As soon as the settlers had landed, everybody set to work. We can almost see the busy men and boys, some eagerly chopping down trees, others sawing trunks into logs of proper length, and still others dragging the logs to the places where they were to be used.

Miles Standish in Armor.

While the men and boys were getting up a big appetite over their work, the women and girls were busy kindling fires, washing clothes, cooking food, and doing the many things that need to be done for the family comfort. How good it would be to have a home once more!

The first building which they put up was a rude log house twenty feet square. This was to serve for the common storehouse and for shelter until they could build separate houses.

The logs were laid one upon another to form the walls of the buildings. Then the cracks were filled with straw and mud, and the roof was covered with reeds. The windows were made of oiled paper.

When, later, they built their houses, they placed them for safety in two rows, one on each side of the street which

Plymouth in the Early Days

led from the harbor up the hill. At the top stood the fort, where they could run for protection if Indians attacked them.

During the first winter their food was plain, and there was none too much of it. Bread made of wheat, rye, or barley was about all they had. Only once in a while, when some one killed a deer or a wild fowl, did they have any meat; for, like the planters of Jamestown, the Pilgrims had no chickens or cows. Cold water, too, was all they had to

drink. They must have longed sometimes for the good milk which they used to have in England and Holland.

But besides having too little food, and that not very good, the Pilgrims suffered much from the cold. Until their dwellings were finished, some had slept on board the Mayflower.

Scant food and lack of warm clothing, with many other hardships, caused much suffering. At one time only Elder Brewster, Captain Standish, and five others were well enough to take care of the sick. Standish, who was very gentle and kind in sickness, made an excellent nurse. He also cheerfully helped with the cooking, washing, and other household duties. At times there was a death every day, and at the end of the first winter one-half of the settlers had died.

Yet in spite of all this suffering, when in the spring the Mayflower sailed back to England, not one would leave Plymouth. They wanted to do the work which they had set out to do, and believed it was not right to give up. How proud we may be that our first Americans were such fine, strong people!

THE PILGRIMS AND THE INDIANS MAKE PEACE

Although they were in constant dread of attack from the Indians, it was nearly three months before an Indian showed himself at the settlement. Then, one day in March, a dusky stranger was seen coming down the street of the village. His first words were: "Wel-come, Eng-lish-men."

This was Sam'o-set. Where do you suppose he learned those English words?

About a week after Samoset made his first visit to Plymouth, he came again, bringing the chief, Mas-sa-soit, with him. Captain Standish, with his company of soldiers beating drums and blowing trumpets, went out to meet

From a painting by G. H. Boughton.

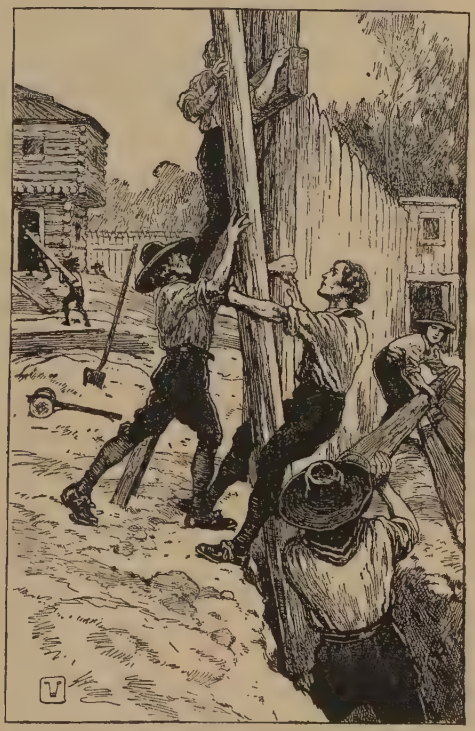
Pilgrim Exiles.

the Indian chief and escort him to Governor Carver. At this meeting a treaty of peace was made that lasted fifty years.

With summer came easier times. There was much less sickness and much more food. In the autumn there were good crops of corn and barley to store away, and plenty of wild ducks, geese, turkeys, and deer in the woods.

Late in the autumn Massasoit with ninety Indians

came to pay a visit to Plymouth. They brought with them some deer, and the Pilgrims supplied other food. A three days' feast followed to celebrate the good feeling, and that was the beginning of our New England Thanks-giv'ing.



They Built Around Plymouth a Palisade of Posts.

The Pilgrims were never quite sure, though, what the Indians might do, and so they built around Plymouth a palisade of posts ten to twelve feet high. These were set deep in the ground and pointed at the top. They also built on "Burial Hill" a large, square block-house, or thick-walled building, with loopholes from which to fire their guns.

The lower part was used as a meeting-house, where meetings of all kinds were held. On Sunday it was a place of worship. But when they wished to talk over some plan for the public good, such as the building of a road or a

bridge, they met here also on week-days. These week-day meetings were very like our town meetings.

But the Pilgrims had other worries besides the Indians. They had borrowed a great deal of money when they came to the New World, and men and women alike had to work very hard to pay it back. Yet by trading with the Indians, mainly for furs, by sending furs, fish, and timber to England, and by earning and saving in every way, at the end of six years they had freed themselves from debt.

Such people were bound to succeed. Although poor in houses and lands, they had something which was worth far more, and that was the desire and the will to do what was right. Yet life in the colony was hard, and the population grew slowly. At the end of four years there were only 180 persons and 32 houses.

AFTER THE PILGRIMS, THE PURITANS COME TO NEW ENGLAND

From time to time news of the free life of the Pilgrims reached England, where the king, Charles I, was making it harder than ever for the Puritans. He believed that whatever he did as king was right, and that all should obey him without question.

The Puritans became so unhappy that many of them gave up their old homes and sailed for New England to make new homes in a free country. They were not simple folk like the Pilgrims. Many were rich men, some be-

longed to families of high rank, and some had great learning.

A small company had come over in 1628 and settled at Sa'lem. But in 1630 the great body of Puritans began to come over in throngs. Nine hundred, led by John Win'-throp, a rich lawyer and country gentleman, settled first at Charles'town, then spread out to Bos'ton and other towns near by.

John Winthrop.

The first part of this company left England in eleven vessels, bringing with them horses, cattle, and many other things useful in settling a new country. After a voyage of nearly nine weeks they reached New England about the middle of June. The time of sailing had been carefully planned so that they should reach their new homes early enough to get ready for winter.

But in spite of their foresight, all did not go as they had planned. Winter did not find them ready, and they had many hardships to meet. The coarse food did not agree with them. Corn bread, bad drinking-water, and poor shelter made many ill. Before December, 200 had died, and yet nobody thought of going back. "I am not

sorry that I have come," said the leader, John Winthrop, a man of strong and beautiful character.

When the future looked darkest, a fast-day was appointed to ask for God's help. But on the very day before, a supply-ship came from England, and the fast-day was turned into a day of thanksgiving.

Puritans on Horseback.

The worst was over. Soon spring brought milder weather, then came the early wild fruits, and soon afterward the new crops. Before another winter they had learned how to make themselves more comfortable.

WISHING EVERY ONE TO WORSHIP GOD IN HIS OWN WAY, ROGER WILLIAMS FOUNDS THE RHODE ISLAND COLONY

The Puritans valued their religion more than anything else in the world. For its sake they had given up their homes in England and most of what was pleasant in their lives. Since their freedom of worship had cost so much, of course they wished to make sure of not losing it.

They thought that, above all else, they must not let any other religions grow up. So they made very strict

laws. They said: "Every one must go to the Puritan church." "No one may vote or take any part in making the laws except members of the church."

Roger Williams Fleeing Through the Woods.

Some of the Puritans did not like this. Among them was Roger Williams, a young man of gentle and noble yet strong character. He was a minister, first at Salem, then at Plymouth, then again at Salem.

It was when he returned to Salem that he got into trouble with the Puritans, for he said many things they did not like. "You do not own the land you live on," he boldly declared. "You got your claim to it from the King of England. But as he never owned the land, he had no right to give it to you."

"You have no right," he went on, "to tax people to support a church to which they do not belong. Nor have you the right to make people go to church."

His bold talk startled the Puritans. Of course they did not like it. Such ideas might make them no end of trouble if Roger Williams kept on preaching them. So they made him leave the colony.

Bidding good-by to his wife and children, he set out alone with only a compass for a guide. To keep from freezing, he carried an axe to chop wood, and flint and steel to kindle fires. His only shelter at night was a hollow tree, or perhaps a covering of brush. After many days he reached Mount Hope, and there the Indians sheltered him. He spent most of the winter in the wigwam of his good friend Massasoit.

In the spring he started out in a frail canoe to a place where the Indians said there was good spring-water. He found it and, with five or six friends who had joined him, made a settlement, which he called Prov'i-dence.

Such was the beginning of Rhode Island (rode i'land) Colony. There every man was welcome and every man could worship as he thought best, or not at all if he chose.

A PICTURE OF LIFE IN NEW ENGLAND IN EARLY COLONIAL DAYS

We have visited the South on a make-believe journey; now let us take a trip to New England. We shall find life there different in many ways.

There are many villages. In some the houses are built along both sides of a road; in others, they are grouped

around a central green. But we are pretty sure to find the meeting-house, the blockhouse, the minister's house, and the inn not far apart.

Here and there we see some newer houses of brick and

Early Settlements in New England.

stone, and if we come at a later time we shall find rich merchants and ship-owners living in fine houses with costly furniture. But most of the dwellings we see now are rough wooden cabins, containing only two rooms, a living-room and a kitchen, with the chimney between.

The people seem glad to see us and ask us in. What huge fireplaces! Here is one big enough to take in a great log six feet long and three feet thick. But the people tell us that even when the flames roar up the chimney, the ink freezes on their pens a few feet away from the fire!

What would happen if the fire should go out? There are no matches, of course. They tell us that at night they cover the glowing coals with ashes, so that the fire will keep. Does it ever go out? Yes, sometimes, and then one of the children runs to a neighbor's and brings home a pan of red coals or a burning stick to relight it; or sparks are struck from flint into a tinder-box or into dry leaves to start a little blaze.

A Blockhouse.

It is nearly noon when we arrive, and in front of the fire the meat or fowl for dinner is being roasted. It hangs by a hempen string from a hook above. A child keeps the string turning, and sometimes the housewife twists it and lets it untwist again.

The table is a long board, about three feet wide, with a bench on either side for seats. There are no plates, but the food is served on wooden blocks ten or twelve inches square and three or four inches thick, scooped out in the centre something like shallow bowls. They are called trenchers. No forks either! We will eat with our fingers, as the others do. How good the food tastes!

After dinner perhaps the family will let us go about and see them at work. They are very busy people. The farmers have to work very hard, for their soil is poor and

rocky. They also make most of their furniture, cooking utensils, and farming tools in the house or in little work-

The Big Fireplace with Its High-backed Seat on Either Side.

shops close by. They have only the simplest tools and everything is crudely made.

There are grist-mills to grind the corn and sawmills

to saw the lumber, both run by the small streams which rush down the hillside.

If the village is near the coast, we shall find some fishermen who make their living by catching cod or whale. We

From "Domestic Architecture of the American Colonies," by Fiske Kimball.

A Northern Home, Built in 1759. The Longfellow Home, Cambridge, Mass.

shall also see some ship-building going on, for it is easy to get good timber in the large forests.

The women, too, are very busy, for the mother does many things which nowadays are done outside the home. Besides cooking and keeping the house in order, she makes clothes for all the family, and even weaves the cloth in the first place! The wool and the

flax are raised on the little farm, and spun and woven by her into cloth. Perhaps she will turn the spinning-wheel for you, to show how the wool or flax is drawn out into long threads. How it whirs and hums!

From "Domestic Architecture of the American Colonies," by Fiske Kimball.

A Southern Home, Built About 1726. Westover, James City County, Va.

WHAT THE BOYS AND GIRLS DO AT HOME AND AT SCHOOL

Of course you will want to see what the children are doing. The girls help their mothers in many ways. They learn to cook, to mould candles, to make soap, to milk the cows, and to make butter and cheese. They work in the gardens, and pluck the geese to get feathers for pillows and

feather-beds. They are also learning to spin, weave, dye, and make clothing. Perhaps you know more about books, but I doubt if you could keep house as well!

The boys are as busy helping their fathers as the girls in helping their mothers. They chop and saw wood, plant

The Spinning-wheel.

and weed the field, feed the pigs, water the horses, clean the stables, and do many kinds of work which most of you boys know nothing about.

The children go to school, too. As you remember, one reason why the Pilgrims left Holland was that they might bring up their children in their own way. From the first they have taken great pains to educate them. So have

the Puritans, and at a very early day public schools were started—so that every town has its school.

It is kind of the children to ask us to visit their school-house. It does not look at all like your big building. It is a rude hut, and the seats are long slabs from sawed logs, with the flat side up, raised on sticks. There are no blackboards nor maps on the wall. The children have no slates and few pencils. Some of them are doing their sums on birch bark, for paper is very scarce. The boys and girls, at home and at school, have very few books. A Bible, a catechism, a hymn-book, and a primer are about all. Yet the children learn to read and write.

Their School-house Is a Rude Log Hut.

WHAT A REAL PURITAN SABBATH IS LIKE

Surely you will want to know how these children of long ago spent their Saturdays and Sundays. Saturday is a very busy day. Everything must be made ready for Sunday, because on that day no cooking is allowed and very little work of any kind.

The Puritans are very strict about this. The minute the sun goes down their Sabbath begins. All work

and play must be put aside, for the Sabbath must be a day of rest.

When nine o'clock in the morning comes, a drum, bell, or horn is sounded. Then each family starts for the meeting-house, the father and mother walking in front of their children. At church we shall see nearly every one who is not sick, for a man who stays away a month without a good reason is punished. If there is danger from Indians, a sentinel stands on guard at the door of the meeting-house, and each man sits with his gun beside him. The sermon is sometimes two or three hours long. The time is kept by an hour-glass, which the sexton turns at the end of every hour. We are a little tired when the service is over.

THE PURITANS ENJOY MANY PASTIMES

But we must not think that the New England people spend all their time in work and worship. Life for the Puritan children is by no means without play. There is plenty of hunting and fishing, and in winter there are lively snowball fights, coasting, and skating. In summer the younger children roll hoops, spin tops, and play at leap-frog and seesaw. Indoors there are merrymakings with games like hide-and-go-seek and blind man's buff.

If the older people invite us to any of their gatherings, it will be to a house-raising or corn-husking party, or perhaps to a spinning-bee or a quilting-bee or an apple-paring. For they all have their good times helping each other in this way.

If we happen to be there at Thanksgiving time, which comes after the corn and pumpkins and apples are stored away for the winter, we shall find the table loaded with turkey, chicken, pudding, pies, nuts, raisins, and other good things that make us hungry even to name.

How would you like to change places once in a while with these boys and girls of the New England of long ago?

Some Things to Think About

1. Who were the Pilgrims? Why did they go to Holland, and why did they later come to New England?
2. Imagine yourself coming over with them on the Mayflower, and tell about the stormy voyage. Why is a voyage to-day a pleasure with little danger and no hardships? Find on the map where the Pilgrims landed.
3. Why did so many of the Pilgrim settlers die during the first winter at Plymouth? How did their difficulties compare with those of the Virginia settlers?
4. What do you admire about the Pilgrims?
5. Who were the Puritans, and why did they come to America? Find where they settled.
6. In what respects were they like the Pilgrims?
7. Why did they drive Roger Williams out of the colony? Do you think this was right?
8. Where did he go then, and what did he do? What do you think of him?
9. How did the New England boys and girls help their fathers and mothers?
10. Tell about their schools. Compare these with your school.
11. Imagine yourself going to church in New England, and tell your classmates about what you see there.

CHAPTER VII

FROM HOLLAND THE DUTCH SEND HENRY HUDSON TO LOOK INTO THE NEW WORLD

The Dutch, like other nations of Europe, wanted to increase their trade, and two years after the settlement of Jamestown they sent out Henry Hudson in search of an all-water route to the Indies.

In April, 1609, with a crew of about twenty sailors, he sailed across the Atlantic in a little vessel called the Half Moon. He touched the shore of the New World near the mouth of the James River and, coasting along to the north, entered a broad inlet which he thought was a passage through America. It proved to be the mouth of a river, which later was named Hudson, after him. There, in September, 1609, he cast anchor.

The Indians, who were friendly and curious, came aboard. They took a great fancy to the knives and beads which Hudson had, and gave him tobacco-leaves in exchange for them.

After about ten days Hudson sailed up the river, still looking for the Northwest Passage. He went as far as what is now the city of Albany, but when he found that the river was not a strait, he turned back toward the open sea.

Although it was not his good fortune to discover the Northwest Passage, Hudson had found something else of great value: a place where the Dutch could make money in trade. For among the gifts which the Indians brought were the glossy brown skins of beavers, and at once a trade in these furs was begun.

THE COMING OF DUTCH SETTLERS TO NEW NETHERLAND

The Dutch did not make a settlement right away, for they were not seeking homes like the people of Massachusetts and Maryland. They were thrifty traders who came and went between Holland and the New World simply to make money.

Copyright by George Wharton Edwards.

Henry Hudson.

Five years passed after Hudson sailed up the Hudson River before even a fort was built at the south end of Man-hat′tan Island (1614). Around this a settlement slowly grew up, and the Dutch called it New Am′ster-dam. They named the country New Neth′er-land, after their home land, just as the English settlers had named theirs New England. Not until 1623 did they attempt to plant a colony.

Some of the newcomers settled on Manhattan Island, where New York now is; a few sailed up the Hudson and built a fort at Albany. Others built a fort on the Delaware River, and still another group settled across the East River on Long Island. A few sailed up the Connecticut and built a fort where Hartford was settled later.

Indian Fur Trader.

In 1625 more emigrants came, and also two ships bringing cattle, horses, hogs, and sheep. Soon there were 200 settlers in the colony.

The next year Peter Min'-u-it, a good and just man, was made governor, and he managed very well. The settlers were contented, and the Indians, being fairly treated, were friendly.

The governor bought from them the land which the settlers needed, and although he did not pay large sums, the Indians were satisfied. You will be surprised to know that for the whole island of Manhattan, where to-day land costs so much that buildings are carried up many stories into the air, Peter Minuit gave about twenty-four dollars' worth of beads, colored cloth, and bits of glass!

From the Indians the Dutch had nothing to fear. By fair dealing Hudson had won their good-will, and by the same kind of treatment the fur-traders had kept it.

But there was still another reason why the powerful Ir'o-quois, who lived west of the Hudson, wanted to be

Dutch Trading with the Indians.

friends with the Dutch. It so happened that in the very same year in which Hudson was sailing north on Hudson River, Cham-plain', a French explorer, of whom we shall speak later, was coming south from Canada on the lake which now bears his name.

He travelled with a band of sixty Al-gon'quin warriors, who were enemies of the Iroquois. To keep the Algonquins friendly to himself, he joined them in an attack upon 200 Iroquois on the shores of Lake Champlain.

They had never heard a gun before, and when Champlain fired and killed one or two of their chiefs, the rest

Champlain Killed One or Two of Their Number.

fled in panic. They never forgot this defeat. From that day the Iroquois hated the French, and were always glad to make them trouble and to kill them when they could.

Now you understand why they wanted the help of the Dutch, and especially of their guns.

Although the Indians made no trouble and Dutch vessels came and went, few people settled in New Netherland. The profits of the fur trade brought restless, roaming traders, but not steady, home-making farmers, who were better off in their homes across the sea.

THE PATROON SYSTEM IS NOT ATTRACTIVE TO SETTLERS

To tempt farmers to go to New Netherland, the Dutch West India Company promised large tracts of land to any members of the company who would take over, in the next four years, fifty grown-up settlers. The land might extend along the Hudson or some other river for sixteen miles on one side, or for eight miles on both sides. It could also run back as far as the owner wished. He was called a patroon, and provided houses, farms, tools, and cattle for the men who agreed to live on his estate.

A Patroon.

In return, the men promised to pay him a certain rent, and to remain on the farm where they were placed. This was fair, but there were some bad

rules; for example, the men could not grind their corn except at the patroon's mill, nor hunt, nor fish, without his permission.

Yet, in spite of getting their land and houses for almost nothing, men with families were rather slow about coming to New Netherland. Other plans, then, had to be tried.

In Early New Amsterdam.

In 1638 a most coaxing scheme was set before the people. Farmers with their families were to be carried across the Atlantic without charge. Each man was to have the use of a farm with its house, barn, and tools. Horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs were to be provided. And, best of all, it was to be made easy for him to become the owner of his little estate in five years.

This plan worked well. Settlers began to come in increasing numbers. And many were attracted by the liberal laws that let people worship as they pleased.

Fifteen years after the first settlement, New Netherland had about 10,000 people. Sixteen hundred lived in New Amsterdam, which was confined to that part of Manhattan lying south of the present Wall Street. Later the

Hudson River came to be lined with the large estates of the patroons, stretching far back into the country.

PETER STUYVESANT HAS HIS TROUBLES

New Netherland had four Dutch governors. We have spoken of Peter Minuit, who set the government of the colony going; the last one was Peter Stuy'vesant. He was a very large man, haughty, and commanding. He had been a brave soldier and had lost a leg in battle, so that now he stumped around on a wooden one.

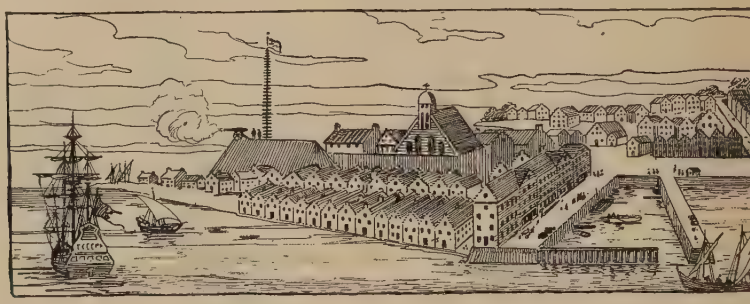
Peter Stuyvesant.

When he became governor of New Netherland he told the people he would rule them "as a father does his children." The people thought this meant that he would be kind and gentle. But instead he treated them as if they could not think for themselves and had no rights of their own. At last he fell into trouble with the Swedes, who had settled along the Delaware River, and forced them to give up to the Dutch as masters of the country.

This was not altogether a good thing for the colony. It had never been strong in a military way, and after fighting

the Swedes was weaker than ever in its means of defense. When a few years later (1664) an English war-fleet appeared in the harbor, the Dutch were powerless to drive it away.

The commander of the English vessel sent an officer ashore demanding surrender. This was a complete sur-



New Amsterda

prise to the Dutch, for it was an act of war, and at that time England and Holland, the mother countries, were at peace.

The English had no good reason for making war, but they coveted New Netherland. They wanted to get control of its trade, and of its fine harbor, the best on the Atlantic coast.

Although the English force was much stronger than the Dutch, Governor Stuyvesant, brave old soldier that he was, begged the people to fight for the town. They would not support him, and he had to give up. The Dutch flag was pulled down, and the English flag raised in its place.

New Netherland was now called New York, and was an

English colony. Under the rule of the English it prospered and continued to grow. For a long time, however, more of the people were Dutch than English, and to this day many old Dutch families survive and are proud of their Dutch names.

673.

A PICTURE OF LIFE IN NEW YORK IN EARLY COLONIAL DAYS

Let us go on another make-believe journey, this time to early New York, and see how the people live. Here all is quite different from either New England or the South, because in those colonies most of the people are English, while here they are mostly Dutch.

Some live in towns where trade is carried on. Yet many live on farms larger than those of New England, but not so large as the Southern plantations.

In the towns we find a few cabins of early settlers, but most of the Dutch houses have stoops in front, where neighbors like to visit in a friendly way. The houses

stand with their gabled ends toward the street, and at the back is a garden with vegetables and flower-beds.

It is the fashion in New Amsterdam to sit outdoors as much as the weather allows, on the stoop, or in arbors or summer-houses in the gardens. The men smoke their pipes and tell stories while the women knit or sew.

If we visit a patroon's estate, we shall see, as we draw near, big windmills, like those in Holland, slowly turning their big white canvas sails in the wind. Near the grand house we shall find large gardens, bright with splendid tulips, lilies, and other beautiful blossoms, for the Dutch are very fond of flowers.

As we enter, the huge fireplace reminds us of those we saw in New England. And we see again the spinning-wheel and hand-loom. But the rest of the rich furniture is large and heavy. The chief piece is the great chest of drawers and shelves set on casters. We are allowed to look in, and we see the finest pieces of family silver, choice dishes, and other costly treasures. There are other chests, too, some for linen and clothing. There is a small one of very handsome wood with knobs of glass or silver or even gold. It is for trinkets and small pieces of tableware.

But even in this handsome house we see no carpet. The floors are kept clean by constant scrubbing, and in some rooms they are sprinkled with sand made into straight or wavy lines by the broom.

The table is loaded with good things to eat, for all

Dutch women are noted for their cooking. There are crullers and cookies, tarts and jellies, cream dishes, preserved fruits, and many other things which make us hungry to think about. To drink, there is buttermilk or beer.

In the bedroom we see high beds showing finely carved legs and posts. Here are little steps up which you must mount if you are to sleep in this fine bed. Then down, down you will sink into the soft feathers, forgetting all about the world outside.

Early Settlements in New York and New Jersey.

Although the men of this colony seem slow and easy-going, nearly all are workers. They are honest and saving, and many have become rich. Perhaps the ship-owners and traders make the most money, for just as the South sends ship-loads of tobacco to Europe, so New York sends cargoes of fur in exchange for things made across the sea.

The little Dutch children go to school, for from the first the settlers have taken much interest in having their children taught.

There are more holidays here than in New England. The people take life more easily than the Puritans. They are fond of dress, of sports, and of merrymakings. In the country they go to spinning-bees, house-raisings, corn-huskings, and dancing-parties; in the towns they enjoy horse-racing, bowling, and picnics.

They make much of Christmas, New Year's, and Easter. They gave us our Santa Claus for Christmas; they started the custom of making calls upon New Year's Day; they were the first to color eggs for Easter.

Some Things to Think About

1. Find on the map the Northwest Passage to the Pacific. Why did early explorers fail to find it? Why did the Dutch send out Henry Hudson? What did he discover?
2. How did the Dutch win the good-will of the Indians?
3. What mistake did Champlain make with the Iroquois, and how did the French suffer later for this mistake?
4. Who were the patroons, and what did they do? Why did the patroon system fail to attract settlers?
5. Why were men with families rather slow about coming from Holland to New Netherland?
6. What kind of man was Governor Stuyvesant, and what do you think of him?
7. Why was the name of the colony changed from New Netherland to New York?
8. Tell all you can about the grand house of the patroon. How was it furnished?
9. What have you learned about the Dutch cooking?
10. Ask your classmates three questions about sports and holidays.

CHAPTER VIII

WILLIAM PENN PLANTS A COLONY FOR QUAKERS IN PENNSYLVANIA

We have seen that the Pilgrims and Puritans went to New England, and the Catholics to Maryland, because they were punished at home for their religion. There were still other people living in England who were having a hard time because of the way they worshipped.

One body of English people who insisted on their own way of worship called themselves "Friends." By others they were nicknamed Qua'kers.

Some of their customs were new and strange. For instance, they would not go to war, nor pay taxes to support war, because they believed it was wrong to fight. And because they believed all men were equal before the law, they would not doff their hats to any man, not even the king. Most of them also refused to wear fine clothing or adorn their houses because they believed in simple living.

One of these Quakers, William Penn, was a rich man and the son of a powerful admiral. He did not go so far in his belief as some, for he wore handsome clothing and had a fine home. But he saw that the only way for his Quaker friends to have peace was to go to live in the New World, as others who suffered for their religion had done.

To carry out his plan, he used his own large fortune. It happened that King Charles II owed Penn $80,000. But Penn saw a way for the king to get rid of the debt, and yet not pay out a penny.

William Penn at the Age of 22 (1666).

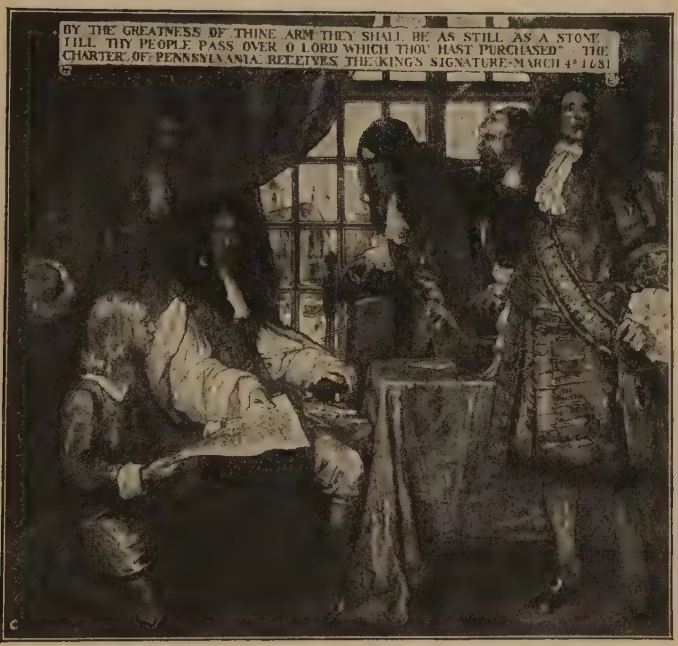
"Will you give me land instead of money?" he asked.

"Willingly," said the king.

You see, the land had cost him nothing. So he set off for Penn a large tract lying west of the Delaware River, and called it Pennsylvania, which means "Penn's woods." Penn was so modest that he did not wish the country named for himself. So the king said: "We will name it for your father."

The next year (1681), a colony of about 3,000 settled on the banks of the Delaware. In October of the year following Penn himself left England to join his colony. Bidding good-by to his wife and children, he sailed for America in the ship Welcome with one hundred passengers. Most of these were Quakers, who had been Penn's neighbors in England.

After a voyage of two months they landed at New'cas-tle, Delaware, where they were greeted with shouts of welcome. This was not his own colony, but some of those who came


BY THE GREATNESS OF THINE ARM THEY SHALL BE AS STILL AS A STONE
TILL THY PEOPLE PASS OVER O LORD WHICH THOU HAST PURCHASED" THE
CHARTER OF PENNSYLVANIA RECEIVES THE KING'S SIGNATURE-MARCH 4° 1681

Copyright by Violet Oakley, from a Copley print copyright by Curtis & Cameron. From the painting in the Pennsylvania State Capitol.

Charles II Signing the Charter of Pennsylvania.

the year before had settled here, among the Swedes and Dutch.

Penn sailed on up the Delaware River until he came to the mouth of the Schuyl'kill (skool'kill) River. Here he found a city laid out by those who had come before him.

He named it Phil-a-del'phi-a, which means "City of Brotherly Love." This name showed the feeling which Penn had for the settlers, and wished them to have for one another.

Cottage of William Penn, Fairmount Park, Philadelphia.

Settlers came in such large numbers that houses could not be built fast enough. For a time some of them had to live in caves dug in the river-banks. The first houses were built of logs, and were very simple. They had only two rooms, and no floor except the bare ground. But in less than three years many houses of boards had been put up and some of the bright-red brick of which Philadelphia to-day has so many. The city grew rapidly, and so did the whole colony.

This was partly because the Indians were friendly. Penn had made friends of them at the start. One day he held a meeting with them under the spreading branches of a large elm-tree, and together they smoked the pipe of peace.

"The friendship between you and me," said Penn, "is not like a chain, for the chain may rust; neither is it like a tree, for the falling tree may break. It is as if we were

parts of one man's body. We are all one flesh and blood."

Of course these words pleased the Indians, for they had feelings very much like those of white men. They replied to Penn in words as kind as his own. Handing him

William Penn's Treaty with the Indians.

a wampum belt of peace, they said: "We will live in love and peace with William Penn as long as the sun and moon shall last."

Penn paid the Indians for the land, although he had already paid the king a large sum, for he believed that the Indians had rights. He was always kind and honest in his dealings with them; and they, in their turn, were true to him.

In the course of years, settlers came in large numbers from many countries. Planted under more favorable conditions than the earliest colonies Pennsylvania grew rapidly. People liked to live where the laws were wise, and where they could worship as they pleased. This they could do in Pennsylvania, and the colony continued to prosper.

A PICTURE OF LIFE IN EARLY PENNSYLVANIA

If we go on a make-believe visit to early Pennsylvania, we shall find customs differing from those in the other colonies. At least a third of the people living in this colony are Quakers; but we learn that besides these there are many Germans and Scotch-Irish, and some from other countries, all of whom are thrifty home-makers. Many of the Germans, we are told, have gone to live on the western border, where they continue to speak their own language.

Most of the houses in Philadelphia are built of brick or stone, and some have balconies. They look most attractive, set in the midst of gardens and apple and peach orchards. We notice about the city and along the roads which lead into the country rows of tall, straight Lombardy poplars. Penn first set the fashion for these trees. He planted an avenue of them on his estate, Pennsbury Manor, situated about thirty miles north of Philadelphia on the Delaware River.

We take horses, and following the road into the country we see a few miles out from the city fine country houses.

They are surrounded by beautiful cedars, pruned into cones and pyramids, and have gardens carefully laid out in walks and alleys.

As we saunter along, the farmhouses look most comfortable. The better ones are of stone, and there is always a smoke-house and one or more very large barns. Beside each house we notice a little clay oven for baking; and often near by on a hillside there is a spring-house with a flat rock, over which cool spring water is flowing. Here, we are told, stand crocks of milk and jars of butter, and sometimes watermelons, cooling for midday refreshment, when the sun is very hot.

Returning from our ride, we go to the house where we are to spend a few days. Passing up the marble steps, we sound the knocker, and are invited into a room where the neatly sanded floor and spinning-wheel tell of order and industry in the home. The family welcomes us cordially, and on the evening of our arrival we mingle with other guests at dinner, all sitting at a long table loaded with good things to eat. Fat oysters from the near-by Chesapeake, soup, boned turkey, roast duck, veal, and beef are followed by several kinds of pie and pudding, jelly and preserves, then nuts, raisins, apples, and oranges.

This is but one example of the whole-hearted hospitality of the Pennsylvania settlers. Another is noted in a beautiful custom in the thinly settled parts of the colony, where there are no inns and the houses are far apart. There the

leading families on the main roads build a log fire at night in the great hall, set a table with food, and leave the front door unbarred so that tired and hungry travellers may enter and find rest and refreshment.

During our stay in Philadelphia we are invited by our kind hosts to join them in a visit to the famous Penn Charter School. One of the teachers tells us that there are few schools out in the country, but that some of the Scotch-Irish and German ministers teach the children of their congregations.

On the streets we see many people and on the river many vessels which are unloading cargoes at the wharfs, for much trading is carried on here. It is a busy scene. As we walk along, we notice street pumps and public bakeries. On Market Square stand the meeting-house and the public market, a long building, open at either end and with stalls on the sides.

The market is held every week on Wednesday and Saturday and is a justly famed feature of the colony. Here the thrifty housewife, with a basket on her arm, or attended by a maid with a basket, may be seen, in the early morning hours, buying household supplies. Meat, poultry, vegetables, fruit, milk, and butter are all of the first quality, for they have been produced on dairy-farms and by families near the city, who have been carrying on the business for many years.

While most of the people are farmers, working their own

farms with the aid of their families and some hired help, there are also traders in fur and iron, ship-builders, manufacturers of cloth, paper, and glass, and workers in other industries.

The Pennsylvania colonists are serious people and are hard workers, but they have many forms of amusement. Among these are horse-racing, bull-baiting, tavern parties, balls, and picnics for the townsfolk; while the young people in the country enjoy such pastimes as corn-huskings, house-raisings, and spinning-bees. All, whether living in town or country, have their sleighing-parties in winter, which sometimes end with supper at a tavern.

We shall long remember our pleasant visit to early Pennsylvania, where the people made us feel so much at home.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell about the customs of the Quakers.
2. Who was William Penn? Why did he wish to make a settlement in America? Show on the map the position of the first settlement in Pennsylvania.
3. How did Penn treat the Indians, and how did they treat him?
4. Why did the colony grow rapidly?
5. What have you learned about the houses the colonists built in early Pennsylvania and the trees they planted?
6. Imagine yourself a guest at a dinner-party, and tell all you can about the food that was served.
7. In an imaginary walk through the streets of Philadelphia mention some of the interesting things you see.
8. Give an account of a beautiful custom that grew up for the entertainment of tired and hungry travellers in the thinly settled regions.
9. In what ways did the people of early Pennsylvania amuse themselves?
10. How do you think you would have enjoyed living in that colony?

CHAPTER IX

JACQUES CARTIER, CHAMPLAIN, FATHER MARQUETTE, AND LA SALLE EXPLORE FOR FRANCE THE GREAT INLAND WATERWAYS OF NORTH AMERICA

Thus far nothing has been said about the work of the French explorers, but France took her part in the struggle for wealth and power which all were seeking.

In 1534 she sent Jacques Cartier (zähk car-ty-ā′), a bold and skilful sea-captain, to search for the Northwest Passage to China. He sailed along the coast of northeastern America, passed into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and carried back to France a full report of what he had seen.

The following year he made another voyage, this time up the St. Lawrence, and landed at a little Indian village where Que-bec′ now stands. Leaving enough men to guard his fleet, he pushed on up-stream in small boats until he came to another Indian village with a very steep hill back of it. He named it Mont-re-al′, which is French for "royal mountain."

After a brief stay the French returned to Quebec. There they spent a terrible winter, and in the spring Cartier was glad to go back to France. Five years later he tried to plant a colony at Quebec, but once more he failed.

CHAMPLAIN EARNS THE TITLE OF FATHER OF "NEW FRANCE"

It was a long time before the French tried again to settle in Canada. Then, in 1608, Champlain, of whom we

Cartier Arriving at Montreal.

have already spoken, planted a colony at Quebec. This was the first permanent French settlement in America, and was one year later than the settlement of the English at Jamestown.

For twenty-seven years Champlain as governor devoted his best strength and energy to the good of the colony. During his term of service many forts and trading-posts were built in Canada to establish the claims of France in

the New World. He well earned the title, "Father of New France," which history has given him.

At first the French came in small numbers. They were mostly traders in furs, although some made a living by cod-fishing and some by farming. They were very friendly with the Indians. They joined them in their sports and in their ways of living. They sometimes even married Indian squaws.

Besides the trader and the soldier, there were in the French settlements many Catholic priests. Some were Jes'u-its. These men did not come to the New World to make money, but to make Christians of the Indians and to extend the power of their church and their country. Many of them were very helpful in the work of exploration.

They went from village to village through the wild forest and over streams and lakes, carrying their message of religion and making notes of what they saw and heard. They passed through many dangers; often they suffered from hunger and cold. Some of them were cruelly tortured, and others were burnt at the stake. But those who were spared kept faithfully on with their good work, planting mission stations wherever they could throughout the wilderness.

FATHER MARQUETTE MAKES A VOYAGE OF EXPLORATION DOWN THE MISSISSIPPI

One of these brave priests was Father Mar-quette'. He came to Canada nearly sixty years after Champlain

made the settlement at Quebec. From there he went far to the west, and on the north side of the Strait of Mack'i-nac built a little bark chapel, where he worked faithfully to make Christians of the red men.

One day an Indian hunter told him of a great river lying still farther to the west. Father Marquette kept thinking of it as the possible passage to the Pacific which all were seeking, and of the work he might do in the Indian villages along its banks. He longed to go in search of it, and got permission from the governor, who sent with him Lou'is Jo'li-et, a fur trader.

Statue of Father Marquette.

In May, 1673, with five trained woodsmen, they started on their long journey. Embarking in canoes on Lake Michigan, they passed on to the head of Green Bay, and, entering Fox River, soon came upon an Indian town. Here they asked for guides, who showed them the way through the forest to the Wis-con'sin River.

A week later they entered the mighty Mississippi, of which the Indians far back in Mackinac had told them. No white man had ever been there before.

Continuing their journey, they made their way slowly down-stream until they reached the mouth of the Arkansas. Here they stopped at an Indian village, where they were told that the Mississippi flowed into the Gulf of Mexico, and not into the Pacific Ocean. The stream, therefore, was not the passage which they were seeking. Still farther down the river they visited other Indian villages, but as the natives were not friendly and as they had found out what they wanted to know, they decided to return.

When they reached Green Bay, after an absence of four months, they had made a journey of more than 2,500 miles, and had given France a claim to vast territory on the ground that Frenchmen had discovered it.

ROBERT CAVELIER, SIEUR DE LA SALLE, HAS GREAT AMBITIONS

The story of Marquette's voyage made a stir in France. Already the French had control of the St. Lawrence River. If now they could get control of the Mississippi also, they might build up a trade which would make France a very rich nation.

To carry out this purpose, a young Frenchman, Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle, gave the best years of his life. But it was not so much trade as the thought of power that led him on. He had hopes, too, of finding the Northwest Passage. His plan was twofold: to build a chain of trading-posts along the Great Lakes and down the Mississippi

Map Showing Routes of Cartier, Champlain, and La Salle, also French and English Possessions at the Time of the Last French War.

River, and to plant a French colony and fort at the mouth of the Mississippi.

After long and careful preparation he built a small vessel, the Griffin, on the Ni-ag'a-ra River, to carry him and his crew through the lakes on their way to the Mississippi.

They started in August, 1679, and after a stormy voyage reached Green Bay in September. Here La Salle found a large quantity of furs, which some of his men had gone ahead to collect for him. He loaded them on the Griffin and sent her back to Niagara but he never heard from her again.

Then paddling down the west shore of Lake Michigan as far as the St. Joseph River, they landed and built a fort. Leaving supplies, they went overland to the Il-li-nois' country, where they built another fort. But beyond this point there were delays and disappointments which greatly hindered La Salle in pushing forward the plan.

FOR FRANCE LA SALLE CLAIMS THE VALLEY OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER AND THE RIVER ITSELF

Not until two years and a half after his first start in the Griffin could La Salle begin his adventure on the Mississippi, the great father of waters. Meantime he had endured many hardships and trials.

But at last, in February, 1682, with twenty-three

Frenchmen and thirty-one Indians, he began his voyage down the river. The little fleet of bark canoes made a

In the Name of the French King, He Planted a Column and a Cross.

picture far different from the one he had in mind when building the Griffin.

After some weeks he landed at the Gulf of Mexico and in the name of the French king he planted a column and a

cross, claiming all the land drained by the Mississippi River and its branches. He called the land Lou-is'i-an'a, in honor of Louis XIV, King of France.

La Salle had now carried out the first part of his plan—to build forts and trading-posts along the river. It remained to found a colony at its mouth. To get help, he must go to the court of France. There his plan met with favor, and with men and supplies he sailed back to America in the summer of 1684. But in landing he missed the mouth of the Mississippi, and went ashore some 400 miles to the west, where he built a fort.

For Sixty-five Days This Painful Journey Lasted.

Then troubles came thick and fast. The Indians attacked him. From lack of food, many of his men fell sick and died. He was the only one who did not lose heart. To save the colony he resolved to go overland to Canada for supplies, and in January, 1687, with seventeen men and

five horses, he started on the long, perilous journey. The men were afraid of the trackless forest. To them it meant disease, famine, Indians, wild beasts, and heat or cold too hard to bear. They cared nothing for La Salle. They had already suffered so much in following him that they had even come to hate him.

Since there was no other escape from their daily misery, they planned to murder their heroic leader; and one morning, as he came forward to speak, one of them fired the fatal shot. This was about two months after they had left the fort.

Such was the end of one of the bravest and boldest of the French explorers. Although he was not able to carry out his plans completely, he did a great service to his country. He gave France her right to claim a large part of the American continent.

Some Things to Think About

1. What was Cartier trying to find? What did he accomplish?
2. Trace on the map the inland waterways Father Marquette explored. What claims did France make as a result of his discoveries?
3. What do you admire in him?
4. What two great plans did La Salle wish to carry out, and why? How far was he successful?
5. Why did he return to France, and where did he go after coming back to America?
6. Why did his men kill him?
7. What do you think of him?
8. Point out on the map the territorial claims France made on account of La Salle's explorations?

CHAPTER X

THE ENGLISH AND THE FRENCH BECOME RIVALS IN NORTH AMERICA

We have seen how the French planted trading-posts and built forts along the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River. As they had other forts along the St. Lawrence, they had control of the two largest river valleys in America. The French claimed also the Ohio River valley, but so did the English.

In order to make good their claims, the English formed the Ohio Company and began to send out settlers to occupy the land. Then the French hastened to put up forts in the same region. One of their forts was quite near the place where the city of Erie now stands. Two others were farther south along the Allegheny River.

When the people of Virginia found out what the French were doing, the governor sent a messenger to warn them that they were building forts on English land. The person chosen to carry this message was George Wash'ing-ton.

GEORGE WASHINGTON MAKES HIS FIRST APPEARANCE IN AMERICAN HISTORY

Who was this young man, and why did the governor trust him with an errand so important?

He was born on February 22, 1732, the son of a rich planter whose lands lay along the Potomac River. At an early age he was sent to a school near by, where he learned a little reading, writing, and ciphering. That does not seem a great deal to us, but it was a good beginning.

They Often Spent the Afternoons in Fox-hunting.

George had great fun at all kinds of boyish sports, such as running, leaping, and wrestling, and easily led in them, for he was strong and rugged. He was a leader because he played fair and was truthful. He was a very careful boy, and neat about his work. "Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well" was his motto, and he stuck to it through life.

As he grew up, his love of outdoor life took him often

to the woods and the fields, and made him enjoy a good gallop on horseback. This led, perhaps, to his interest in surveying, of which there was much need at that time. Washington learned to do this—that is, to measure off land, one man's from another's—and his careful habits as a boy helped him as a surveyor.

Near by his home at Mount Vernon lived an English gentleman, Lord Fair'fax. This tall, slender, white-haired man of sixty took a great liking to the manly youth of sixteen, and a friendship was begun which kept the two together much of the time. They often spent the mornings in surveying and the afternoons in fox-hunting.

Lord Fairfax trusted his young friend, and when he needed some one to survey land far out beyond the Blue Ridge Mountains, he chose Washington.

Washington was at this time barely sixteen. Yet with one companion a few years older, he started out, both youths on horseback. They carried guns, because they would need them not only to protect themselves from wild beasts and Indians but also to kill game; for while they were away from home they would have to depend mainly upon hunting for their supply of food.

Washington's account of the journey gives many pictures in his own words. Now we see him and his companion riding along through the unbroken forest with no path except, perhaps, the trail of Indians or wild animals. Then we see them spending the night in a woodsman's cabin,

with nothing but a mat of straw for a bed and a single blanket for covering. Again they are making a large fire. Each is his own cook. Their spits are forked sticks, and their plates are large chips.

There were many dangers and hardships, but in meeting them Washington was becoming more manly and learning many things which, as a future leader of men, he would have to know. He was coming close to the Indians, traders, and woodsmen, and learning to understand them.

He was also becoming better known to the men of his own colony, who were going to need him. One of those who were watching him was the governor of Virginia. Now can you guess why, some years after he returned from this trip, young George Washington was the one picked out to bear the message to the commander of the French forts?

It was in the autumn of 1753 that Washington started on that dangerous journey to the Ohio valley. With only seven companions he set out through the thick forests. They had to push through the deep snows in the midst of heavy storms. Many times there was not even the trail of Indians nor the path of wild beasts to guide them.

It was December when they reached the French fort, about fifteen miles south of Lake Erie. Washington gave the governor's message, and received an answer from the French commander, who promised nothing. Then, with one faithful woodsman, he started back home. On the way

they passed through many dangers. Once an Indian shot at Washington, and came near killing him. At another time, he had a narrow escape from drowning, for when they came to the Allegheny River, which they had to cross, it was broken up into great blocks of floating ice.

There was but one thing to do. Taking turns with the only hatchet they had, they spent a day in making a raft. Then they launched it.

The swirling blocks of ice lunged at their craft, and many times it seemed as if it must go under. Once Washington's foot slipped. It was a desperate moment, but he caught himself up, and at last they touched the shore.

The night was bitter cold, but they dared not build a fire for fear of the Indians. When morning came, the hands and feet of Washington's companion were frozen. How they must have suffered!

After an absence of more than two and a half months, they reached home. But their mission was not successful, for the answer which Washington brought from the French made it plain that they did not intend to leave the Ohio country.

THE LAST FRENCH WAR BEGINS

At once the Ohio Company sent out a party of men to build a log fort, at the place (now Pittsburg) where two rivers unite to form the Ohio. Shortly afterward Washing-

ton himself was sent with a body of soldiers to defend it. But before it could be built, French troops came down from Canada in canoes and drove away the workmen.

The French calmly finished the fort for themselves, and called it Fort Duquesne (du-cān′). Then a large body of French soldiers advanced to meet Washington, defeated him in a battle at Great Meadows, and forced him to march back to Virginia.

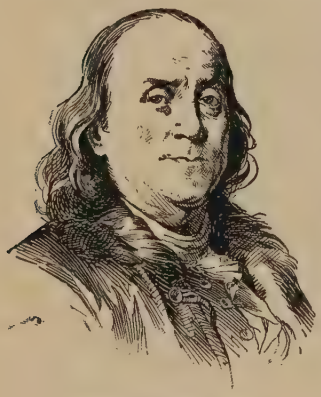
This was in the spring of 1754. The war to decide who owned the Ohio valley had begun, and soon grew into a war which would decide who owned the greater part of North America.

The French in the Ohio Valley.

As you remember, the English settlements were all along the Atlantic coast, while most of the French were in Canada. There were fifteen times as many English settlers as there were French; but while the French were united under one governor, the English were in thirteen separate groups, each having its own governor. In order to carry on the war successfully, it was necessary for the English colonies to find some way of working together.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN PROPOSES A "PLAN OF UNION"

One of their leading men proposed a plan. His name was Ben'ja-min Frank'lin, and he was truly a great man. He had such an important part in the life of the colonies that we should know something about him. His father was a candle-maker, and when Benjamin was only ten he went to work in his father's shop. Here he did such things as cutting wicks for the candles, filling the moulds with tallow, selling soap in the shop, and acting as errand-boy.



Benjamin Franklin.

Although he was faithful in all his work, he did not enjoy doing these things, for he was fond of being outdoors and near the water. He could swim and row and sail boats better than most of the boys.

He had good habits. He was never idle, because he put a high value upon time. He never spent money foolishly, because he knew the easiest way to make money was to save what he had.

He was very fond of books and reading. On that account his father put him into a printer's shop owned by his older brother in Boston. But Benjamin thought his

brother was not quite fair to him, and he set out to seek his fortune alone. He was then seventeen.

He went to Philadelphia, where most of his life was spent. An amusing story is told of how he looked to his future wife when he first arrived in that city. Look it up and tell it to your teacher.

Years after this he set up in the printing business for himself. But in order to do it, he had to borrow money. He worked early and late to pay off the debt, and sometimes even made his own ink and cast type with his own hands. But no matter where he was, or how hard he had to work, he always found time to read and improve his mind.

Here are some of the rules he made: "Be orderly about your work. Do not waste anything. Never be idle. When you decide to do anything, do it with a brave heart." Some of these rules appeared in an almanac which he published and called "Poor Richard's Almanack." People liked it very much, and it became well known everywhere.

Franklin also liked to make things that were useful in the home. Perhaps you have seen a Franklin stove. This invention was so much better than the open fireplace that it soon came to be widely used. But the most wonderful of all the things he did was to prove that e-lec-tric'i-ty was the same thing as the lightning we see in the clouds.

You would hardly expect a man of these tastes to be the one to work out a plan to unite the English colonies. Yet

it was he who, clearly seeing that the English colonies would be much stronger if they would work together, proposed in 1754 his "Plan of Union." It was not approved by the colonies, for they were not far-sighted enough to see its value, but it was a step toward the union which came later.

ENGLAND HELPS THE COLONIES

In 1755 England sent out help to her colonies. General Brad'dock with a large number of English troops came over, and made plans to march against Fort Duquesne. He invited Washington to be one of his aids.

Braddock's task was a hard one. He had to cut a road through the forest much of the way, and at the same time fight the Indians. He was used to making war in the open fields of Europe, but of this woodland warfare he knew nothing.

Washington warned him to be on the lookout against the Indian way of fighting. But he thought he knew more about the business of war than young Washington, and he paid no attention to this warning.

After many toilsome days of marching, at last, when within eight miles of the French fort, they had a battle. First they suddenly saw a man bounding along the pathway just ahead. He was dressed like an Indian. Catching sight of the British army, he turned and waved his hat. At once a body of French soldiers and Indian warriors

dashed out from the underbrush, and a hideous war-whoop rent the air.

Then, as suddenly as they had come, the French and the Indians vanished. They had run back and, hiding behind trees and bushes where Braddock and his men could

Braddock's Toilsome March through the Wilderness.

not see them, they shot down the English by hundreds. Braddock's men could only fire blindly into the dense forests. They could not see a single man. After two hours of fighting, the English threw away their guns and fled for their lives.

Braddock fought bravely. So did Washington. Two horses were shot from under him, and four bullets tore through his clothing, but he was not hurt. Seven hundred

men were either killed or wounded, among them Braddock himself, who received a mortal wound.

The defeat was a hard one. If Washington had not managed to get the army back, it would have been even worse. Such was the result of the first real battle of the Last French War.

THE ENGLISH BEGIN TO WIN

For the next three years the French got the best of the fighting. But in 1758 and 1759 the English began to win. They drove the French from Fort Duquesne and named it Fort Pitt, after William Pitt, who was then at the head of affairs in England. At the north they also drove the French from their strongholds on Lake George and Lake Champlain.

They next set out to conquer the French in the St. Lawrence valley. To do this, they had to capture Quebec, the most important French stronghold on the St. Lawrence River.

GENERAL WOLFE IS SELECTED TO CONQUER THE FRENCH IN THE ST. LAWRENCE VALLEY

For the great task William Pitt picked out James Wolfe, who became the hero of Quebec. He is, indeed, one of the heroes of the world. He was thirty-two years old. To look at him you would never imagine that he was a soldier. He was tall and thin, with narrow shoulders and

frail body. His hair was red and his face plain, but his beautiful eyes were full of thought and showed a fearless spirit.

His health was never robust. As a child he had often been sick, and he was now suffering from a disease which must soon have ended his life. But he had an iron will and a strong wish to serve his country in some way.

Although he had a hot temper, his tender, frank nature helped him to make friends and keep them. His soldiers loved him and were willing to follow him through any dangers, even to death.

In June, 1759, Wolfe with an army of nearly 9,000 men cast anchor in the St. Lawrence River, not far from Quebec. The town stood on a rocky cliff 200 feet above the river, and Wolfe saw from the first that it would not be an easy place to capture.

There were many hardships to endure. The intense heat and drenching rains made his soldiers sick. Wolfe himself became ill with fever. But he would not give up. Although in great pain most of the time, he went from tent to tent among his men, trying to give them courage.

He said to his doctor: "I know you cannot cure me. But pray make me up so that I can be without pain for a few days, and able to do my duty. That is all I want." You see he feared that he would not live long enough to finish his task.

At last, after much waiting and searching, he discovered

a pathway up the steep cliff leading to the fort. Then he knew that the best way to defeat Montcalm, the French commander, was to get the English army up to the plain by this pathway.

WOLFE CAPTURES QUEBEC

Wolfe took a number of men in boats up the river to a point nine miles above the place where he intended to make the attack. Two hours after midnight, on September 13, the signal was given for the advance. It was a clear, starlit night, but as there was no moon the English were hidden in darkness while they moved slowly down the river.

Let us imagine ourselves standing by Wolfe's side as the boats float quietly down the stream. He is speaking in low tones. We listen closer. He is repeating the words of a poem that he loves. One line seems to make him sad: "The paths of glory lead but to the grave." He has come to the end. He pauses and says gently: "Gentlemen, I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec."

After landing, the English struggled up the great cliff. Each man, with musket over his shoulder, had to pull himself up by clinging to the trees and bushes. But by six o'clock in the morning Wolfe had his army drawn up in line ready for battle. It had been an anxious night for the sick young English general.

But it was no less so for Montcalm. Though not sick in body, he was sick at heart. He was fighting for a losing

cause, and he knew it. He had not men enough to defend the city, he was short of supplies, and the people of the city did not stand by him. He had not taken off his clothes to rest since the 23d of June.

About six o'clock that morning he heard musket-shots and the firing of cannon. Mounting his black horse, he rode at once toward Quebec. When he saw in the distance the British soldiers drawn up in red ranks, he said to an officer who was riding by his side: "This is a serious business."

Quebec and Surroundings.

At ten o'clock the French advanced upon the English. The struggle was a bitter one, and the French lost the battle.

Wolfe was struck by three bullets, the last of which brought him to the earth. Then four of his men bore him tenderly and lovingly to the rear. A moment later some one said: "They run! See how they run!" The dying man opened his eyes as if waking from a deep sleep, and said: "Who runs?" "The enemy, sir. Egad, they give way everywhere." "Now," said Wolfe, as he breathed his last, "God be praised; I will die in peace."

Montcalm also received a mortal wound. But, supported by his soldiers, he kept his saddle as he rode through the town. When told that he could not live many hours,

he said: "So much the better. Thank God, I shall not live to see Quebec surrendered."

Five days later Quebec passed out of the hands of the French into the hands of the English. Not even then, however, did France give way; for a while it seemed almost as if she might get back at least her own lands. But it was too late. By the treaty of peace, in 1763, she gave up to Spain the land between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, and to England she gave up Canada and the land east of the Mississippi.

North America was now in the hands of England and Spain, and England had control of all the land east of the Mississippi except Florida.

LIFE IN THE SPANISH MISSIONS OF CALIFORNIA

About the time that the English and the French were striving for mastery in the country east of the Mississippi, Spanish missionaries were making conquests of another kind in the land bordering on the Pacific coast. Six years after the Last French War the first Spanish mission in California was founded at San Diego (1769). Before the close of the century, seventeen more were established, and still later three others, making twenty-one in all. At that time this vast territory belonged to Spain.

The Franciscan priests, who had charge of the missions, were called padres, which is the Spanish word for fathers, and the converted Indians were called "neophytes." While

the purpose of the padres was to make the Indians good Christians, Spain was expecting that the missions would prepare the territory for colonies.

The twenty-one missions extended from San Diego on the south to Sonoma, not far beyond San Francisco on the north, forming a chain 700 to 800 miles long. They were vast estates, some of them covering forty square miles in area; not much like the small farms nestling among the hills and valleys of New England nor even like the large tobacco plantations in Virginia.

From "Romantic California," by Ernest Peixotto.

The Mission, Santa Barbara.

The mission buildings were in the form of a quadrangle around a cloistered court with gardens. Sometimes there were beautiful flowers in the gardens and a fountain playing in the centre. The building included apartments for the

padres, workshops, storerooms, hospitals and rooms for the married Indians. The whole was enclosed by a high fence or wall.

But we almost forget to think of the size of the missions and mission buildings when we come to know something about the people who lived in them—hundreds and even thousands of Indian converts, and the devoted missionaries who for years guided and controlled them. Would you not like to learn more about their daily life?

Let us make the journey and see for ourselves what a California mission really was. On a beautiful summer afternoon when the sun is nearing the western horizon, we are riding along a rough, dusty road. Having travelled all day, a distance of over thirty miles, we notice with pleasure that we are approaching a group of buildings in a valley. Their snow-white walls and red-tiled roofs have an air of comfort, and we urge our horses forward, for we know that what we see is a mission and that there we shall receive a friendly welcome.

According to their custom, the padres greet us cordially, set excellent food before us, and provide restful beds where we shall sleep quietly after we have given our kind hosts news from the outside world. They consider such news a sufficient return for their hospitality, because it is mainly from the chance traveller that they learn what is taking place in other lands.

After much good talk and gossip, we retire at nine o'clock,

for that is the hour when the iron gates are locked and all the Indians are supposed to be in bed. We know, too, that the rising bell will ring early, and we plan to observe the life of the mission throughout the day.

From "Romantic California," by Ernest Peixotto.

The Mission Bells.

The angelus awakens us at sunrise to attend morning prayers. Quietly we follow, as the Indians pass into the church for the hour of service and instruction.

The second ringing of the bell is the call for breakfast, which consists of a thick barley or corn-meal gruel.

At the end of about three-quarters of an hour the bell rings again and the Indians go in groups to their various tasks. We notice that with them there are soldiers who seem to be overseers. The soldiers are stationed at the missions by the government to protect them against attack from without and to keep good order among the Indians.

Let us visit the different groups in turn, going first to the women's quarters. Some are spinning wool and weaving it

into blankets of bright colors; some are making clothing of the blankets, for the women make all the clothing worn by the Indians in the missions; and some are knitting, or embroidering beautiful altar-cloths, for, although the living quarters of the priests are very plain, the churches are adorned with rich furnishings.

We catch the fragrance of roasting grain, and turn to see a group pounding or crushing barley and corn into meal for the gruel which is so important an article of diet. The kitchen is even more attractive, because there the women are making cakes of chocolate and other dainties; you see, the padres lived well.

In the many shops Indians are working at various trades under the instruction of skilled artisans who have been brought to the mission for that purpose. There are masons, carpenters, blacksmiths, and coopers. Some are tanning hides for leather; others are making the finished leather into shoes or bridles. It will interest you to know that all the work of building the missions was done by the Indians, and also that they built the little huts and adobe cabins in which married Indians lived outside the mission enclosure.

Leaving these hives of industry, we pass on to the open fields, where hundreds of Indians are raising vegetables and fruit in the gardens and orchards. We see plum, peach, and apple trees, with their ripening fruit; orchards of silver-leaved olive-trees; fragrant orange and lemon groves; vineyards of grapes; and acres of golden, shimmering grain. We

see, also, thousands of horses, cows, mules, and sheep grazing peacefully in the fields. It is indeed a delightful picture.

Under watchful masters the work goes on quietly and steadily until at eleven o'clock the ringing of a bell from the mission belfry announces the midday meal. Again all have the same food, a kind of gruel, much like that eaten in the morning, but made thicker by the addition of peas, beans, lentils, or meat.

At two o'clock the bell again summons to work, and as the hot afternoon wears on, mules are sent into the fields bearing jars of sweetened water and vinegar to refresh the workers. At sunset the angelus calls them to evening prayers.

After prayers there follows a light evening meal, and then come games and perhaps dancing. At nine o'clock all go to bed for the night.

Such is the plan of work, worship, meals, and rest which these Indian converts follow every working day throughout the year. There are no idlers. All work without hesitation or complaint. It is indeed a wonderful sight, for there are hundreds of Indians in the mission. Sometimes there are three or four thousand at the larger ones.

Every mission, we are told, is self-supporting—that is, it produces most of what it uses—although a few necessary things are received in trade, when foreign ships come into near-by harbors. The missions export large quantities of olive-oil, wine, tallow, and hides, and the income from this

source goes to the support of the mission and to the Spanish Government.

The trader, like the traveller, is always a welcome guest, for he also brings news from the outside world. While the ships remain in the harbor, the padres sometimes dine with the traders in the ship's cabin; or, more frequently perhaps, the traders are invited to dinner at the mission. There they are given much freedom, but they are expected to attend mass.

Having spent a most enjoyable day at the mission, we are off early the next morning. The kind-hearted padres speed us on our journey with fresh horses and we travel northward along a well-marked road which leads to the next mission. From time to time we meet a clumsy ox-cart piled high with tallow and hides jolting onward to the coast, or a lone horseman, or possibly a foot traveller with a pack on his back.

To our left, as we gallop along, we look out on the silvery waters of the Pacific, and to our right, far away, we see snow-clad mountains. Near by on our approach to the next mission we gaze on fields of grain, herds of cattle, more orchards of fruit, and vineyards. Alighting at the gate, we hand over our horses to waiting Indians, enjoy another night's hospitality, and by the following day bring our visit to an end.

Besides what we have seen, we have learned other facts of interest about the missions. For instance, at San Ga-

briel, there were at one time 2,000 horses and mules, 14,000 sheep, and 25,000 cattle; and at San Diego, 26,000 head of cattle, horses, and sheep.

All profits of the mission were either put into making better buildings or into a fund belonging to the neophyte Indians themselves. The devoted padres receive no pay for what they do. Their only desire is to make good Christians of the Indians, and to train them to habits of work.

We notice that the Indians are treated like children, as indeed they are. They have to do just what they are told or they are severely punished. And yet they seem, as a rule, to be content with their lot and even happy in obeying those who are both their teachers and their taskmasters.

Above all, our visit to the missions has impressed us with their great industry and prosperity. They not only gave a religious training to thousands of Indian men and women; they also put extensive areas of new land under cultivation, built up a light commerce with foreign lands, and furnished stations of entertainment where scattered settlers and other travellers found a friendly welcome. And most remarkable of all, at a time when hostile, savage Indians were roving the plains, the gentler tribes of the coast were living a peaceful and productive life under the teaching of the faithful padres who brought them into close touch with the civilized ways of the white men. Such is the story of the early Spanish settlements in California.

Some Things to Think About

1. What was the cause of the last French War? The result?
2. What kind of boy was George Washington? How did his early training fit him for his first mission from the governor?
3. Describe his work as surveyor beyond the Blue Ridge Mountains.
4. Tell the story of Washington's long journey to the French fort.
5. What do you admire in Washington? In what ways can you be like him?
6. What kind of boy was Benjamin Franklin? Do you think you would like such a boy if he were in your school?
7. What important thing did Franklin try to bring about? Did he succeed?
8. How did Braddock show he was unfitted to command the expedition?
9. Imagine yourself a near friend of James Wolfe, and tell why you like him.
10. What was Wolfe's great problem? What was his plan for solving the problem?
11. Tell the story of the tragic end of the two rival generals.
12. How did the surrender of Quebec affect the future of America? Of what country is Canada now a part?
13. How many Spanish missions were there, and what was their purpose?
14. Tell as much as you can about the mission buildings and the occupations of the neophyte Indians.
15. Imagine yourself spending a day in a mission, and describe what you see there.
16. How many people lived in some of the largest missions?
17. What good things were accomplished by the missions?

CHAPTER XI

PATRICK HENRY ELOQUENTLY DEFENDS THE RIGHTS OF THE COLONISTS

The Last French War had cost England so much that at its close she was heavily in debt. "As England must now send to America a standing army of at least 10,000 men to protect the colonies against the Indians and other enemies," the king, George III, reasoned, "it is only fair that the colonists should pay a part of the cost of supporting it."

The English Parliament, being largely made up of the king's friends, was quite ready to carry out his wishes, and passed a law taxing the colonists. It was called the Stamp Act. It provided that stamps—very much like our postage-stamps, but costing from one cent to fifty dollars each—should be put upon all the newspapers and almanacs used by the colonies, and upon all such legal papers as wills, deeds, and the notes which men give promising to pay back borrowed money.

When news of this act reached the colonists they were angry. "It is unjust," they said. "Parliament, by levying taxes without our consent, is making slaves of us. The charters which the English king granted to our forefathers when they came to America make us free men just as much as if we were living in England.

"In England it is the law that no free man shall pay taxes unless they are levied by the men who represent him

George III.

in Parliament. We have no one to represent us there, and we will not pay the taxes which that body votes. We will pay only the taxes voted by the representatives in our own colonial assemblies."

Among those most earnest in opposing the Stamp Act was Patrick Henry, who was born in 1736, in Hanover County, Virginia. His father was an able lawyer, and his mother belonged to a fine old Welsh family.

Patrick, as a boy, took little interest in anything that seemed to his older friends worth while. He did not like to study nor to work on his father's farm. His delight was to wander through the woods, gun in hand, hunting for game, or to sit on the bank of some stream fishing by the hour. When not enjoying himself out-of-doors he might be playing his violin.

Of course the neighbors said, "A boy so idle and shiftless will never amount to anything," and his parents did not know what to do with him. When he was fifteen years old they put him as clerk into a little country store, where he worked for a year, and then opened a store of his own. But he was still too lazy to attend to business, and soon failed.

When he was only eighteen he married. The parents of the young couple, anxious that they should do well, gave them a small farm and a few slaves. But it was the same old story. The young farmer would not take the trouble to look after his affairs, and let things drift. So before long the farm had to be sold to pay debts. Once more Patrick turned to store-keeping, and after a few years he failed again. He was now twenty-three years old, with no settled occupation, and with a wife and family to support. No doubt he seemed to his friends a ne'er-do-well.

About this time he decided to become a lawyer. He borrowed some law-books, and after studying for six months applied for permission to practise law. Although he passed a poor examination, he at last was started on the right road.

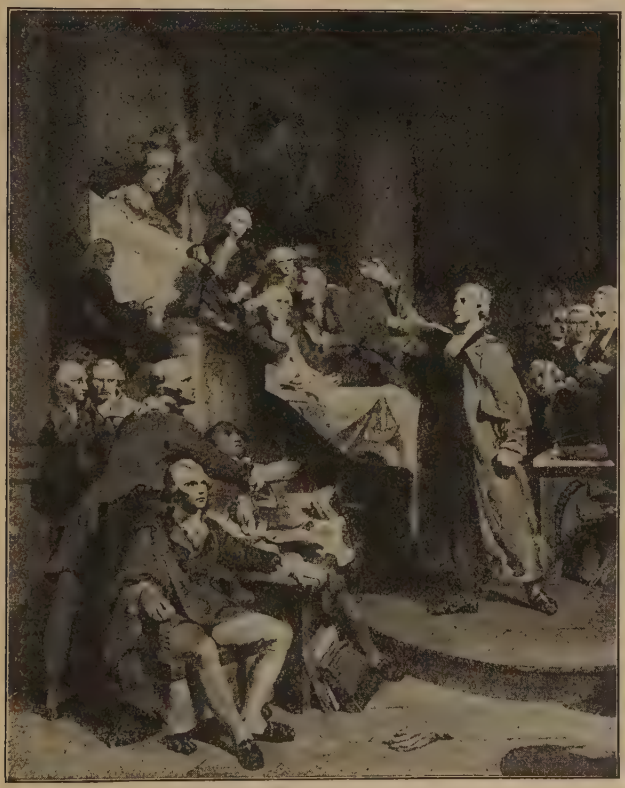
He succeeded well in his law practice, and in a few years had so much business that people in his part of Virginia began to take notice of him. In 1765, soon after the Stamp Act was passed by the British Parliament, he was elected a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, a body not unlike our state legislature.

PATRICK HENRY MAKES A FIERY SPEECH AGAINST THE STAMP ACT

History gives us a vivid picture of the young lawyer as he rides on horseback along the country road toward Williamsburg, then the capital of Virginia. He is wearing a faded coat, leather knee-breeches, and yarn stockings, and carries his law papers in his saddle-bag. Although but twenty-nine, his tall, thin figure stoops as if bent with age. He does not look the important man he is soon to become.

When he reaches the little town of Williamsburg, he finds great excitement. Men gather in small groups on the street, talking in anxious tones. Serious questions are being discussed: "What shall we do about the Stamp Act?" they say. "Shall we submit and say nothing? Shall we send a petition to King George asking him for justice?

Shall we beg Parliament to repeal the act, or shall we take a bold stand and declare that we will not obey it?"



Patrick Henry Delivering His Speech in the Virginia House of Burgesses.

Not only on the street but also in the House of Burgesses was great excitement. Most of the members were wealthy planters who lived on great estates. So much weight and dignity had they that the affairs of the colony

were largely under their control. Most of them were loyal to the "mother country," as they liked to call England, and they wished to obey the English laws as long as these were just.

So they counselled: "Let us move slowly. Let nothing be done in a passion. Let us petition the king to modify the laws which appear to us unjust, and then, if he will not listen, it will be time to refuse to obey. We must not be rash."

Patrick Henry, the new member, listened earnestly. But he could not see things as these older men of affairs saw them. To him delay seemed dangerous. He was eager for prompt, decisive action. On a blank leaf from a law-book he hastily wrote some resolutions, and, rising to his feet, he read them to the assembly.

We can easily picture the scene. This plainly dressed rustic with stooping shoulders is in striking contrast to the prosperous plantation-owners, with their powdered hair, ruffled shirts, knee-breeches, and silver shoe-buckles. They give but a listless attention as Henry begins, in quiet tones, to read his resolutions. "Who cares what this country fellow thinks?" is their attitude. "Who is he, anyway? We never heard his voice before."

But while they sit in scornful wrath, the young orator's eyes begin to glow, his stooping figure becomes erect, and his voice rings out with fiery eloquence. "The General Assembly of Virginia, *and only* the General Assembly of

Virginia," he exclaims, "has the right and the power of laying taxes upon the people of this colony."

These stirring words fall amid a hushed silence. Then debate grows hot, as members rise to speak in opposition. But the new member is more than a match for all the distinguished men who disagree with him. Like a torrent, his arguments sweep all before them. The bold resolutions he presents are passed by the assembly.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.

It was a great triumph. On that day Patrick Henry made his name. "Stick to us, old fellow, or we're gone," said one of the plain people, giving him a slap on the shoulder as he passed out at the close of the stormy session. The unpromising youth had suddenly become a leader in the affairs of the colony.

Not only in Virginia, but also in other colonies, Henry's speech aroused the people against the Stamp Act. They saw in the young assemblyman a bold leader, willing to risk any danger for the cause of justice and freedom.

You would expect that in the colonies there would be strong objection to the Stamp Act, but even in England many leading men opposed it. They thought that George III was making a great mistake in trying to tax the colonies

without their consent. In the House of Commons, William Pitt, afterward Earl of Chatham, made a great speech in which he said: "I *rejoice* that America has resisted." He went on to say that if the Americans had meekly submitted, they would have acted like slaves.

Other great statesmen, among them Edmund Burke and Charles James Fox, befriended us. And even more helpful were the English merchants and ship-owners, who joined in begging Parliament that the act be repealed because the Americans refused to buy any English goods as long as the Stamp Act was in force. It was repealed the next year.

Other unjust measures followed, but before we take them up let us catch another glimpse of Patrick Henry, ten years after his patriotic speech at Williamsburg.

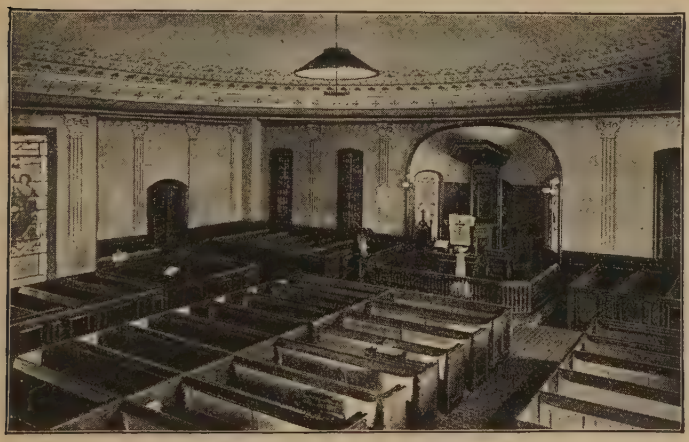
ANOTHER PATRIOTIC SPEECH BY PATRICK HENRY AROUSES THE COLONISTS TO RESISTANCE

The people of Virginia are again aroused. King George has caused Parliament to send English soldiers to Boston to force the unruly people of Massachusetts to obey some of his commands, against which they had rebelled. Virginia has stood by her sister colony, and now the royal governor of Virginia, to punish her, has prevented the House of Burgesses from meeting at Williamsburg.

But the Virginians are not so easily kept from doing their duty. With a grim determination to defend their

rights as free men, they elect leaders to act for them at this trying time. They call a meeting in Richmond at old St. John's Church. There is great excitement, and thoughtful people are very serious, for the shadows of the war-cloud are growing blacker every hour.

In the meeting Patrick Henry offers a resolution that



St. John's Church, Richmond.

Virginia should at once prepare to defend herself. Many of the leading men stoutly oppose this resolution as rash and unwise.

After heated discussion Patrick Henry rises, his face pale, his voice trembling with deep emotion. Again the bent shoulders straighten and the small, deep eyes flash with excitement, but his voice is clear and steady, and as he goes on with increasing power it rings out like a trum-

pet. Men lean forward in breathless interest. Listen to his words:

"We must fight! I repeat it, sir, we must fight! An appeal to arms and to the God of Hosts is all that is left us!

" . . . Our brethren are already in the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death!"

Small wonder that the audience sways to his belief! He was a true prophet, for in less than four weeks the first gun of the Revolution was fired. The battle was fought in the quiet town of Lexington, Mass., and, without doubt, Patrick Henry's fiery spirit helped to kindle the flame which then burst forth.

Some Things to Think About

1. Why did Parliament pass the Stamp Act, and why did the colonists object to it?
2. What did Patrick Henry mean when he said the General Assembly of Virginia, *and only* the General Assembly of Virginia, had the right and the power of laying taxes upon the people of that colony?
3. What is your mental picture of young Patrick Henry as he rode on horseback toward Williamsburg?
4. What did William Pitt think of the Stamp Act? Why did Parliament repeal it? What other friends did the colonists have in England?
5. Explain Patrick Henry's power as an orator? Tell some things that he said in his famous speech in St. John's Church.
6. What do you admire in him? Why do we remember him as a great leader?

CHAPTER XII

SAMUEL ADAMS IS THE CHAMPION OF FREEDOM AND THE LEADER OF THE COLONISTS IN NEW ENGLAND

While Patrick Henry was leading the people of Virginia in their defiance of the Stamp Act, exciting events were taking place in Massachusetts under another colonial leader. This was Samuel Adams. Even before Virginia took any action, he had introduced in the Massachusetts Assembly resolutions opposing the Stamp Act, and they were passed.

Samuel Adams.

This man, who did more than any one else to arouse the love of liberty in his colony, was born in Boston in 1722. His boyhood was quite different from that of Patrick Henry. He liked to go to school and to learn from books, and he cared little for outdoor life or sport of any kind.

As he grew up, his father wished him to become a clergyman, but Samuel preferred to study law. His mother op-

posing this, he entered upon business life. It was, perhaps, a mistake, for he did not take to business, and, like Patrick Henry, soon failed, even losing most of the property his father had left him.

SAMUEL ADAMS IS AN INSPIRING LEADER

But, although not skilful in managing his own affairs, he was a most loyal and successful worker for the interests of the colony. Before long he gave up most of his private business, spending his time and strength for the public welfare.

His only income was the very small salary he received as clerk of the Assembly of Massachusetts. It was hardly sufficient to buy food for his household. But his wife was thrifty and cheerful, and his friends were glad to help him because of the time he gave to public affairs. His home life, though plain, was comfortable, and his children were well brought up.

Poor as he was, no man could be more upright. The British, fearing his influence, tried at different times to bribe him with office under the king, and even to buy him with gold. But he scorned any such attempts to turn him aside from the path of duty.

The great purpose of his life seemed to be to encourage the colonists to stand up for their rights as freemen, and to defeat the plans of King George in trying to force them to pay taxes. This kept him busy night and day. In the

assembly and in the town meeting all looked to him as an able leader; and in the workshops, on the streets, or in the shipyards men listened intently while he made clear the aims of the king, and urged them to defend their rights as free-born Englishmen.

Patriots in New York Destroying Stamps Intended for Use in Connecticut.

Even at the close of a busy day this earnest patriot gave himself little rest. Sometimes he was writing articles for the newspapers, and sometimes urgent letters to prominent leaders in Massachusetts and in the other colonies. Long after midnight those who passed his dimly lighted windows could see "Sam Adams hard at work writing against the Tories."

Had you known him at this time, you would never

have thought of him as a remarkable man. He was of medium size, with keen gray eyes and hair already fast turning white. His head and hands trembled as if with age, though he was only forty-two years old and in good health.

He became a powerful leader in the colony. Not only did he rouse the people against the Stamp Act, but he helped to organize societies of patriots called "Sons of Liberty," who refused to use the stamps, and often destroyed them. In Massachusetts, as in Virginia and elsewhere, the people went further, and refused to buy any English goods.

After many resolutions had been passed and many appeals made to the king, the act was repealed, as we have already seen. There was great rejoicing! In every town in the country bonfires were lighted, and every colonial assembly sent thanks to the king.

But the obstinate, power-loving George III was not at all pleased with the course of events. He had given in very much against his will, for he wanted to rule in his own way, and how was that possible if he allowed his stubborn colonists to get the better of him?

So he made up his mind to insist upon some sort of a tax, and in 1767, only a year after the repeal of the Stamp Act, he persuaded Parliament to pass a law taxing glass, lead, paper, tea, and a few other articles imported into the colonies.

Samuel Adams and other leaders said: "We can resist

this tax just as we did the Stamp Act—by refusing to buy any goods whatever from England." To this the merchants agreed, promising that while the unjust tax was in force they would import no English goods, and the people agreed to uphold them.

SAMUEL ADAMS'S COUNSEL TO THE PEOPLE OF BOSTON NOT TO RECEIVE THE TEA LEADS TO THE "BOSTON TEA PARTY"

Feeling grew more bitter and business became worse, until at length, after something like three years, Parliament took off all the new taxes except the one on tea. "They must pay one tax to know we keep the right to tax," said the king.

It would have been much better for England if she had taken off all the taxes and made friends with the colonists. Many leaders in that country said so, but the unwise king was bent upon having his own way. "I will be king," he said. "They shall do as I say."

Then he and his followers worked up what seemed to them a clever scheme for hoodwinking the colonists. "We will make the tea cheaper in America than in England," they said.

But they were soon to find out that those simple colonists were only Englishmen across the sea, that they too had strong wills, and that they did not care half so much about buying cheap tea as they did about giving up a

principle and paying a tax, however small, which they had no part in levying.

King George went straight ahead with his plan. It was arranged that the East India Company should ship cargoes of tea to Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston.

In due time the tea arrived. Then the king's eyes were opened. What did he find out about the spirit of these colonists? That they simply would *not* use this tea. The people in New York and Philadelphia refused to let it land, and in Charleston they stored it in damp cellars, where it spoiled.

But the most exciting time was in Boston, where the Tory governor, Hutchinson, was determined to carry out the king's wishes. Hence occurred the famous "Boston Tea Party"—a strange tea-party, where no cups were used, no guests invited, and no tea drunk! Did you ever hear of such a party? Let us see what really happened.

It was on a quiet Sunday, the 28th of November, 1773, when the Dartmouth, the first of the three tea-ships bound for Boston, sailed into the harbor. The people were attending service in the various churches when the cry, "The Dartmouth is in!" spread like wildfire. Soon the streets were alive with people. That was a strange Sunday in Puritan Boston.

The leaders quickly sought out Benjamin Rotch, the owner of the Dartmouth, and obtained his promise that

the tea should not be landed before Tuesday. Then they called a mass-meeting for Monday morning, in Faneuil Hall, afterward known as the "Cradle of Liberty."

The crowd was so great that the meeting adjourned to the Old South Church, and there overflowed into the street. There were 5,000 in all, some having come from near-by towns. Samuel Adams presided. In addressing the meeting, he asked: "Is it the firm resolution of this body not only that the tea shall be sent back but that no duty shall be paid thereon?" "Yes!" came the prompt and united answer from these brave men.

Faneuil Hall, Boston.

The patriots were determined that the tea should not be landed. Governor Hutchinson was equally determined that it should be. A stubborn fight, therefore, was on hand.

The Boston patriots appointed men, armed with muskets and bayonets, to watch the tea-ships, some by day, others by night. Six post-riders were appointed, who should keep their horses saddled and bridled, ready to speed into the country to give the alarm if a landing should

be attempted. Sentinels were stationed in the church belfries to ring the bells, and beacon-fires were made ready for lighting on the surrounding hilltops.

Tuesday, December 16, dawned. If the tea should remain in the harbor until the morrow—the twentieth day after arrival — the revenue officer would be empowered by law to land it forcibly.

Old South Church, Boston.

Men, talking angrily and shaking their fists with excitement, were thronging into the streets of Boston from the surrounding towns. By ten o'clock over 7,000 had assembled in the Old South Church and in the streets outside. They were waiting for Benjamin Rotch, who had gone to see if the collector would give him a "clearance," or permission to sail out of the port of Boston with the tea.

Rotch came in and told the angry crowd that the collector refused to give the clearance. The people told him that he must get a pass from the governor. Then the meeting adjourned until the afternoon.

At three o'clock a great throng of eager men crowded the Old South Church and the streets outside waiting again for Rotch. It was an anxious moment. "If the governor

refuses to give the pass, shall the revenue officer be allowed to seize the tea and land it to-morrow morning?" Many anxious faces showed that men were asking themselves this momentous question.

But while the meeting waited in deep suspense for Rotch, they discussed the situation, and suddenly John Rowe asked: "Who knows how tea will mingle with salt water?" At once a whirlwind of applause swept through the assembly and the masses outside. A plan was soon made.

The afternoon light of the short winter day faded, and darkness deepened; the lights of candles sprang up here and there in the windows. It was past six o'clock when Benjamin Rotch entered the church and, with pale face, said: "The governor refuses to give a pass."

An angry murmur arose, but the crowd soon became silent as Samuel Adams stood up. He said quietly: "This meeting can do nothing more to save the country."

These words were plainly a signal. In an instant a war-whoop sounded outside, and forty or fifty "Mohawks," men dressed as Indians, dashed past the door and down Milk Street toward Griffin's Wharf, where the tea-ships were lying at anchor.

It was then bright moonlight, and everything could be plainly seen. Many men stood on shore and watched the "Mohawks" as they broke open 342 chests and poured the tea into the harbor. There was no confusion. All was

done in perfect order. And many leading citizens assisted at this strange brewing of tea.

Soon waiting messengers were speeding to outlying towns with the news, and Paul Revere, "booted and spurred," mounted a swift horse and carried the glorious message through the colonies as far as Philadelphia.

THE "BOSTON TEA PARTY" RESULTS IN CLOSING THE PORT TO TRADE

The "Boston Tea Party" was not a festivity which pleased the king. In fact, it made him very furious. He promptly decided to punish the rebellious colony. Parliament, therefore, passed the "Boston Port Bill," by which the port of Boston was to be closed to trade until the people paid for the tea. But this they had no mind to do. They stubbornly refused.

Not Boston alone came under the displeasure of King George and Parliament. Massachusetts was put under military rule, with more soldiers, and with General Gage as governor. The new governor gave orders that the colonial assembly should hold no more meetings. He said that the people should no longer make their own laws, nor levy their own taxes. This punishment was indeed severe.

With no vessels allowed to enter or leave the harbor, and trade entirely cut off, the people of Boston soon began to suffer. Yet the brave men and women would not give

in. They said: "We will not pay for the tea, nor will we say to the king we are sorry for what we have done."

When the other colonies heard of the suffering of the people in Boston, they sent wheat, cows, sheep, fish, sugar, and other kinds of food to help them. The king thought that by punishing Boston he would frighten the other colonies. But he was mistaken, for they said: "We will help the people of our sister colony. Her cause is our cause. We must all pull together in our resistance to King George and the English Parliament." So his action really united the colonies.

Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia.

In order to work together to better advantage, the colonies agreed that each should send to a great meeting some of their strongest men to talk over their troubles and

work out some plan of united action. This meeting, which was called the First Continental Congress, was held at Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia (1774).

This First Continental Congress urged the people to stand together in resisting the attempt of King George and Parliament to force them to pay taxes which they had had no share in laying. By this time they went a step farther and declared: "We have the right not only to tax ourselves but also to govern ourselves."

Some Things to Think About

1. In what respects were Samuel Adams and Patrick Henry unlike as boys?
2. Tell why Samuel Adams had great power over men. Why is he so well remembered?
3. What kind of man was George III? Why did he so strongly desire that the colonists should be compelled to pay a tax to England?
4. What was the tax law of 1767, and why did the colonists object to paying the new taxes?
5. What led to the "Boston Tea Party"? Imagine yourself one of the party, and tell what you did.
6. In what way did George III and Parliament punish Boston for throwing the tea overboard? How did the colonists help the people of Boston at this time?
7. What was the First Continental Congress, and what step of great consequence did it take?
8. Locate Boston and Philadelphia on the map.

CHAPTER XIII

THE WAR FOR OUR INDEPENDENCE BEGINS NEAR BOSTON

When Parliament passed the Boston Port Bill, the king believed that such severe punishment would not only put a stop to further rebellious acts but would cause the colonists to feel sorry for what they had done, and incline them once more to obey him. Imagine his surprise and indignation at what followed!

John Hancock.

As soon as General Gage ordered that the Massachusetts Assembly should hold no more meetings, the colonists made up their minds they would not be put down in this manner. They said: "The king has broken up the assembly. Very well. We will form a new governing body and call it the Provincial Congress."

And what do you suppose the chief business of this congress was? To make ready for war! An army was called for, and provision made that a certain number of the men enlisted should be prepared to leave their homes

at a minute's notice. These men were called "minute-men."

Even while the patriots, for so the rebellious subjects of King George called themselves, were making these preparations, General Gage, who was in command of the British troops in Boston, had received orders from England to seize as traitors Samuel Adams and John Hancock, who were the most active leaders.

A Minuteman.

Samuel Adams you already know. John Hancock was president of the newly made Provincial Congress. General Gage knew that Adams and Hancock were staying with a friend in Lexington. He had learned also through spies that minutemen had collected some cannon and military stores in Concord, twenty miles from Boston, and only eight miles beyond Lexington. He planned, therefore, to send a body of troops to arrest the two leaders at Lexington, and then to capture or destroy the stores at Concord.

Although he acted with the greatest secrecy, he was unable to keep the knowledge of his plans from watchful minutemen. We shall see how one of them outwitted him.

Paul Revere had taken an active part in the "Boston Tea Party," and the following year, with about thirty other young patriots, he had formed a society to spy out the British plans.

John Hancock's Home, Boston.

On the evening of April 18, 1775, he and his friends brought word to Doctor Warren, a patriot leader, that General Gage was about to carry out his plan of capture.

It was quickly arranged that Paul Revere and William Dawes should go on horseback to Lexington and Concord and give the alarm. They were sent by different routes, with the hope that one at least might escape the British patrols who carefully guarded all roads leading from Boston.

Dawes was soon galloping across Boston Neck, and Paul Revere was getting ready for his long night ride.

After arranging for a lantern signal in the belfry of the

Old North Church, to show by which route the British were advancing, "one if by land and two if by sea," in a light

From a drawing by F. C. Yohn.

Paul Revere's Ride.

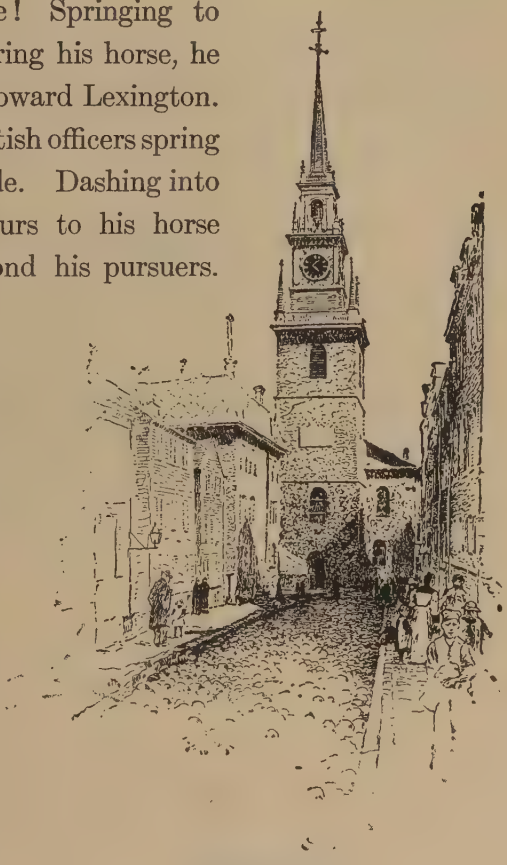
skiff he crossed the Charles River to Charlestown. There he obtained a fleet horse and stood ready, bridle in hand, watching to catch the signal-lights.

At eleven o'clock one light! Exciting moment! Then

another light! "Two if by sea!" The British troops are crossing the Charles River to march through Cambridge!

No time to lose! Springing to the saddle and spurring his horse, he is off like the wind toward Lexington.

Suddenly two British officers spring out from the road-side. Dashing into a side-path, with spurs to his horse he is soon far beyond his pursuers. Then, in his swift flight along the road, at every house he shouts: "Up and arm! Up and arm! The regulars are out! The regulars are out!"



Old North Church.

Lights begin to gleam from the windows. Doors open and close. Minutemen are mustering.

When Lexington is reached, it is just midnight. Eight minutemen are guarding the house where Adams and Hancock are sleeping. "Make less noise!" they warn the lusty rider. "Noise!" cries Paul

Revere. "You'll have noise enough before long. The regulars are out!"

Then William Dawes arrives and joins Revere. Hastily refreshing themselves with a light meal, they ride off together toward Concord. Samuel Prescott, a prominent Son of Liberty, whose home is in that town, has joined them. About half-way they are surprised by mounted British officers, who call: "Halt!"

Prescott escapes by making his horse leap a stone wall, and rides in hot haste to Concord; but Paul Revere and William Dawes fall into the hands of the British officers, who returned with them to Lexington and then let them go. Running off at full speed to the house where Samuel Adams and John Hancock were staying, Paul Revere told them what had happened, and then guided them across the fields to a place of safety.

BATTLES AT LEXINGTON AND CONCORD AND BUNKER HILL GIVE THE COLONISTS GREAT ENCOURAGEMENT

Meantime, the British troops, numbering 800 men, under Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, were on their way to Lexington. Before they had gone far they were made aware, by the ringing of church-bells, the firing of signal-guns, the beating of drums, and the gleaming of beacon-fires from the surrounding hilltops, that their secret was out, and that the minutemen knew what was going on.

Surprised and disturbed by these signs, Colonel Smith

sent Major Pitcairn ahead with a picked body of troops, in the hope that they might reach Lexington before the town could be completely aroused. He also sent back to Boston for more men.

Just as the sun was rising Pitcairn marched into Lex-

LINE OF THE MINUTE MEN
APRIL 19 1775
STAND YOUR GROUND
DONT FIRE UNLESS FIRED UPON
BUT IF THEY MEAN TO HAVE A WAR
LET IT BEGIN HERE
CAPTAIN PARKER

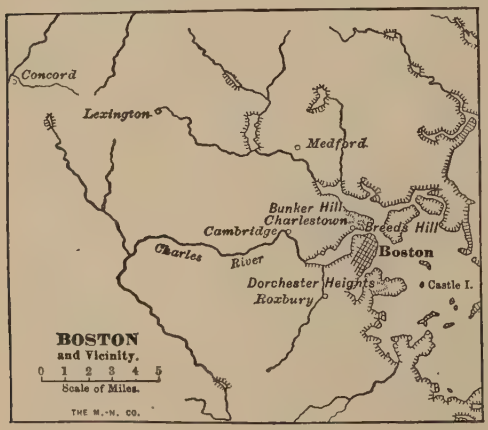
Monument on Lexington Common Marking the Line of the Minutemen.

ington, where he found forty or fifty minutemen ready to dispute his advance.

Riding up, he cried: "Disperse, ye rebels; disperse!" But they did not disperse. Pitcairn ordered his men to fire, and eighteen minutemen fell to the ground.

Leaving the shocked and dazed villagers to collect their dead and wounded, Colonel Smith hastened to Concord. He arrived about seven in the morning, six hours after Doctor Prescott had given the alarm.

There had been time to hide the military stores; so the British could not get at those. But they cut down the liberty-pole, set fire to the court-house, spiked a few cannon, and emptied some barrels of flour.



Boston and Vicinity.

About 200 of them stood guard at the North Bridge, while a body of minutemen gathered on a hill on the opposite side. When the minutemen had increased to 400, they advanced to the bridge and brought on a fight which resulted in loss of life on both sides. Then, pushing on across the bridge, they forced the British to withdraw into the town.

The affair had become more serious than the British had expected. Even in the town they could not rest, for an ever-increasing body of minutemen kept swarming into Concord from every direction. By noon Colonel Smith could see that it would be unwise to delay, and gave the order to return to Boston.

When they started back, the minutemen kept after them in a deadly attack. It was an unequal fight. The minutemen, trained to woodland warfare, slipped from tree

to tree, shot down the worn and helpless British soldiers, and then retreated, only to return and repeat the harassing attack.

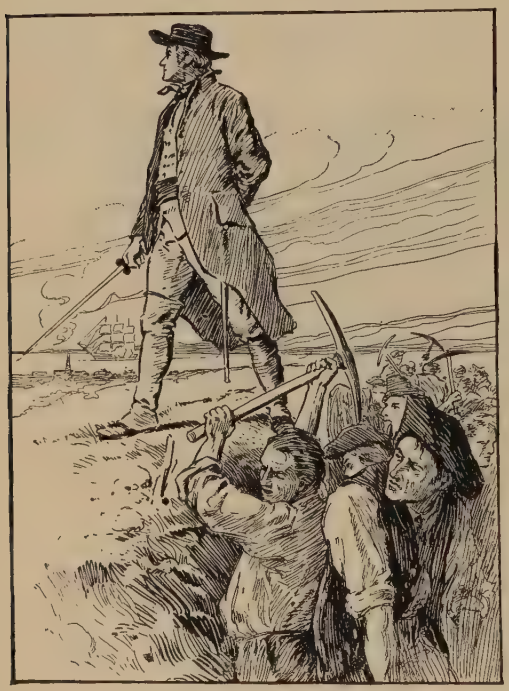
When the British reached Lexington Common, at two

Concord Bridge.

o'clock, they were quite overcome with fatigue. Only the timely arrival of 1,200 fresh troops, under Lord Percy, saved the entire force from capture.

After resting an hour they again took up their march. But the minutemen, increasing in numbers every moment,

continued their running attack until, late in the day, the redcoats came under the protection of the guns of the war-vessels in Boston harbor.



Prescott at Bunker Hill.

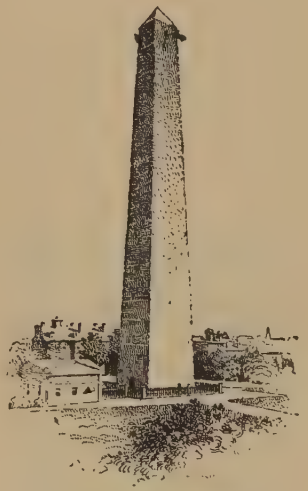
The British had failed. There was no denying that. They had been driven back, almost in a panic, to Boston, with a loss of nearly 300 men. The Americans had not lost 100.

The people of Massachusetts for miles around were now in a state of great excitement. Farmers, mechanics, men in all walks of life flocked to the army, and within a few days the Americans, 16,000 strong, were surrounding the British in Boston.

While these stirring events were happening in Massachusetts, something of great importance to all the colonies was taking place in Philadelphia. Here the Continental

Congress, coming together for the second time, was preparing for war. They made George Washington commander-in-chief of the Continental army, of which the troops around Boston were already a beginning.

Meantime more British troops, under the command of General Howe, arrived in Boston, making an army of 10,000 men. In order to force them out the Americans decided to occupy Bunker Hill.



Bunker Hill Monument.

On the night of June 16, therefore, shortly before midnight, 1,200 Americans marched quietly from Cambridge and, advancing to Breed's Hill, which was nearer Boston than Bunker Hill, began to throw up breastworks. They worked hard all night, and by early morning had made good headway.

The British, on awaking, were greatly surprised, and turned the fire of their war-vessels upon the Americans, who kept right on with their work.

General Howe, now in command of the British army, thought it would be easy enough to drive off the "rebels," and about three o'clock in the afternoon made an assault upon their works.

The British soldiers, in their scarlet uniforms, make an impressive sight as they climb the slope of the hill to charge the breastworks. Twice they advance and twice the Americans drive them back, ploughing great gaps in their ranks.

A third time they advance. Now the Americans do not answer the charge. Their powder has given out! A great rush—and the redcoats have climbed over. Even now it is no easy victory, for the Americans fight bravely, as with clubbed muskets they meet the invaders.

The British won their victory with great loss. "Many such," said one critic, "would have cost them their army." On the other hand, the Americans had fought like heroes, and news of the battle brought joy to every loyal heart.

Some Things to Think About

1. Impersonating Paul Revere, tell the story of his famous ride. What do you think of him? Trace on the map the route he took.
2. Why did the British troops march out to Lexington and Concord?
3. Imagine yourself at Concord on the morning of the battle, and tell what happened. Who were the minutemen?
4. Describe the British retreat.
5. Why did the Americans fortify Breed's Hill?
6. What were the results of the battle of Bunker Hill?

CHAPTER XIV

GEORGE WASHINGTON IS MADE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF OUR ARMY

In electing George Washington commander-in-chief of the army the Continental Congress had chosen well. Men had come to know him as a leader, and believed they could trust to him the great work of directing the army.

We know something of Washington's boyhood and youth and also of his valiant service in the Last French War. After that war he returned to his home at Mount Vernon, on the banks of the Potomac, and very soon (1759) married Mrs. Martha Custis, a young widow. He became a very rich man, being one of the largest landholders in America.

George Washington.

Some years rolled by in the busy, quiet life of the young planter, with no hint of the exciting events which were leading up to the Revolution. But during these days Washington was taking his part in public affairs. He was one of the representatives of Virginia at the first meeting of the Continental Congress, in 1774, going to Philadelphia

in company with Patrick Henry and others. He was also a delegate to the second meeting of the Continental Congress, in May, 1775.

He filled well each place of honor, whether in army or state; personally, he represented the best life of the colonies. As a respected gentleman and trusted public servant,

Washington, Henry, and Pendleton on the Way to Congress at Philadelphia.

therefore, he was easily the unanimous choice of Congress for the commander-in-chief of the American army.

On being elected, Washington rose and thanked Congress for the honor, adding modestly: "I do not think myself equal to the command I am honored with." No doubt, in the dark days of war that followed, he often felt that way, but he accepted the trust, looking to a higher Power for strength to carry him through.

He refused to accept any salary for his services, but said he would keep an account of his expenses. The idea of gain for himself in the time of his country's need was far removed from his idea of patriotic service.

On the 21st of June Washington set out on horseback from Philadelphia, in company with a small body of horsemen, to take command of the American army around Boston. Three days later he arrived in New York, about four o'clock on Sunday afternoon, and was given a royal welcome. Nine companies of soldiers on foot escorted him as he passed through the city in an open carriage drawn by two white horses, and all along the route crowds of people who lined the streets greeted him with cheers. Continuing his journey, on July 2 he reached the camp in Cambridge, where officers and soldiers received him with enthusiasm.

THE AMERICAN ARMY UNDER WASHINGTON'S LEADERSHIP DRIVES THE BRITISH OUT OF BOSTON

Next day under the famous elm still standing near Harvard University, Washington drew his sword and took command of the American army.

He was then forty-three years old, tall and manly in form, noble and dignified in bearing. His soldiers looked upon him with pride as he sat upon his horse, a superb picture of strength and dignity. He wore a three-cornered hat decorated with the cockade of liberty, and across his

breast a broad band of blue silk. The impression he made was most pleasing, his courteous and kindly manner winning friends immediately.

The new chief at once began the labor of getting his troops into fighting form, his army being one only in name.

The Washington Elm at Cambridge, under which Washington Took Command of the Army.

For, although the men were brave and willing, they had never been trained for war, and were not even supplied with muskets or powder.

Fortunately, the British did not know how badly off the American army was, and were taking their ease inside their own defenses. The autumn and the winter slipped by

before Washington could make any attempt to drive the British out of Boston.

At last, by the 1st of March, 1776, when some cannon and other supplies arrived in camp, he sent troops by night to seize and fortify Dorchester Heights, overlooking Boston on the south. Howe was taken completely by surprise. The Americans soon made their earthworks so strong that he decided not to molest them, and he sailed away with all his army to Halifax. The powder and cannon left behind showed that he lost no time in getting away.

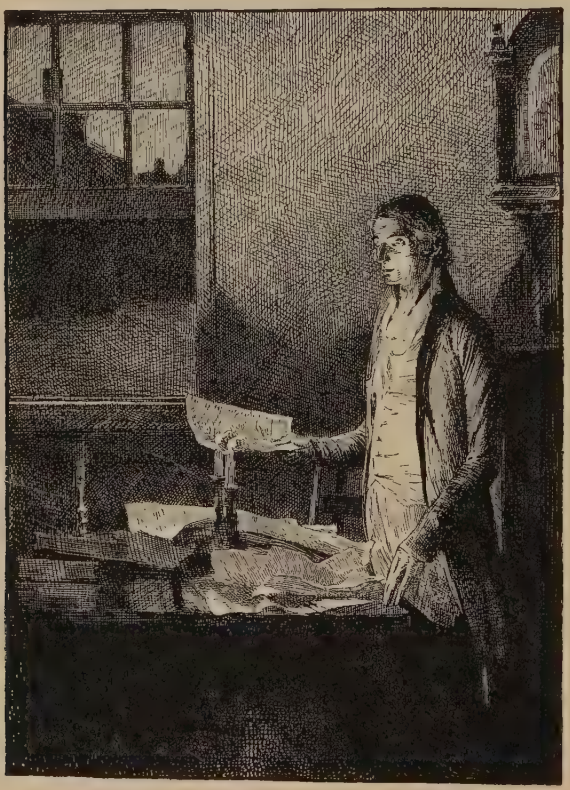
Washington thought that after leaving Boston the British would try to take New York, in order to get control of the Hudson River and the middle colonies. To outwit them he went there at once.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE IS ADOPTED JULY 4, 1776

While Washington was erecting defenses at New York, an event of profound importance took place in Philadelphia. This was the adoption of the Declaration of Independence by the Continental Congress. Up to the summer of 1776 it was for their rights as free-born Englishmen that the colonists fought. But now that King George was sending thousands of soldiers to force them to give up these rights, dear to them as their own lives, they said: "We will cut ourselves off from England. We will make our own laws; we will levy our own taxes; we will manage

our affairs in our own way. We will declare our independence."

A committee, therefore, was appointed, two of whom



Thomas Jefferson Looking over the Rough Draft of the Declaration of Independence.

were Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin, to draw up the Declaration of Independence. When it was presented to Congress, a long and heated debate followed, for while

many were ready to fight for their rights, they did not wish to separate from the mother country. But the Declaration of Independence was adopted July 4, 1776. The event was announced by the ringing of bells throughout the country, and there was great rejoicing everywhere. After that the thirteen colonies became states, each with its own government.

WASHINGTON HAS A NARROW ESCAPE WITH HIS ARMY, AND IS FORCED TO RETREAT

The Declaration of Independence made the earnest work of war no easier. It had to go on with increased energy, and the forces at Washington's command were pitiably weak. He had only an ill-assorted army of about 18,000 men to meet the 30,000 under General Howe, who soon arrived in New York harbor with a large fleet. Yet Washington heroically carried out his plans to defend the city. Having fortified Brooklyn Heights, on Long Island, he sent General Putnam with half the army across the East River to occupy them.

On August 27 General Howe, with something like 20,000 men, attacked a part of these forces and defeated them. If he had attacked the remainder at once, he might have captured the full half of the army under Putnam's command—and even Washington himself, who, during the heat of the battle, had crossed over from New York.

But Howe was so sure of making an easy capture of that

part of the army that he thought there was no need of haste, and gave his tired men a rest after the battle on the 27th. On the 28th a heavy rain fell, and on the 29th a dense fog covered the island.

Before midday of the 29th some American officers riding

The Retreat from Long Island.

down toward the shore noticed an unusual stir in the British fleet. Boats were going to and fro as if carrying orders. "It looks as if the English vessels may soon sail up between New York and Long Island and cut off our retreat," said these officers to Washington. The situation was perilous. At once Washington gave orders to secure all the boats possible, in order to attempt escape during the night.

It was a desperate undertaking. There were 10,000 men to be taken across, and the width of the river at the point of crossing was nearly a mile. It would hardly seem possible that such a movement could be made in a single night without being discovered by the British troops, who were lying in camp within gunshot of the retreating Americans. But that which seemed impossible was done, for the army was transferred in safety to New York.

The night must have been a long and anxious one for Washington, who stayed at his post of duty on the Long Island shore until the last boat-load had pushed off. The retreat was as brilliant as it was daring, and it saved the American cause.

But even after he had saved his army from capture and once more outwitted the British, the situation was still one of grave danger. For no sooner had the Americans left Long Island than the British seized Brooklyn Heights. And now just across the river from New York were the threatening British troops, and just below them in the harbor the British fleet.

NATHAN HALE PERFORMS A HEROIC SERVICE FOR HIS COUNTRY

With forces so unequal a single unwise movement might bring disaster. If Washington only could know what the British planned to do! There was but one way

to find out, and that was to send a spy into their camp. He called for a volunteer.

Probably many of you boys and girls know the name of the courageous young soldier who offered to go on this dangerous errand. He was Nathan Hale. It is worth our while to know more about him.

He was born in Coventry, a little Connecticut town, in 1755. His parents, who were very religious people, had taught him to be always honest, brave, and loyal.

Nathan as a boy was studious and liked books, but he was also fond of play, and joined in sports with the other boys. They liked him because he always played fair.

Later, at Yale College, he was a good student and an athlete also, developing into a tall and well-built young man. He sang well, was gentle in manner, and thoughtful of others. Indeed, his good qualities endeared him to all who knew him.

After leaving college, he taught school and was much respected and loved by his pupils. When the Revolutionary War broke out he was teaching in New London, Conn. He felt sorry to leave his school, but believing his country needed the service of every patriotic man, he joined the army and was made a captain.

When his commander needed a spy and asked for a volunteer, he said: "I am willing to go. Send me." Because of his quick mind and ready speech, and, above all, his trusted loyalty, Washington accepted him for the mission.

He was only twenty-one, hardly more than a boy, and he knew the danger. Yet, although life was very dear to him, he put his country first.

He entered the enemy's lines, visited all the camps, took notes, and made sketches of the fortifications, hiding the papers in the soles of his shoes. He was just about returning, having hailed his boat, when he was captured. The papers were found in his shoes, and he was condemned to be hanged as a spy before sunrise the next morning.

The marshal who guarded him that night was a cruel man. He would not allow his prisoner to have a Bible, and even tore in pieces before his eyes the farewell letters which Hale had written to his mother and friends.

But Nathan Hale was not afraid to die, and held himself calm and steady to the end. Looking down upon the few soldiers who were standing near by as he went to his death, he said: "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

Although prevented from fulfilling his mission, this brave young soldier proved himself a true hero.

FIGHTING AGAINST HEAVY ODDS, WASHINGTON ESCAPES BY A MASTER-STROKE

The death of Nathan Hale was only one of the severe trials Washington had to bear at this time. We have noted that when the Americans left the Long Island shore, the British promptly occupied it. As their position on

Brooklyn Heights commanded New York, Washington had to withdraw, and he retreated northward to White Plains, where a battle was fought.

The War in the Middle States.

The British were held back, but during the next two months the Americans lost heavily in the fighting, and also two forts on the Hudson River, with 3,000 men. The outlook was gloomy for the Americans, and it was well that they could not foresee the events that were about to happen.

In order to escape from the enemy, Washington had to retreat once more, this time across New Jersey toward Philadelphia. With the British army, in every way stronger than his own, close upon him, it was a race for life. Sometimes there was only a burning bridge, which the rear-guard of the Americans had set on fire, between the fleeing forces and the pursuing army.

To make things worse, the soldiers whose term of en-

listment was over were leaving daily to go home. When Washington reached the Delaware River he had barely 3,000 men in his army.

But again by a master-stroke he saved the cause. With great care and foresight he had collected boats for seventy miles along the river, and had succeeded in getting his army safely across at a place a little above Trenton. As there were no boats left for the British, they had to come to a halt. In their usual easy way, they decided to wait until the river should freeze, when—as they thought—they would cross and make a speedy capture of Philadelphia.

To most people in England and in America alike, the early downfall of the American cause seemed certain. General Cornwallis was so sure that the war was over that he had begun to pack his luggage, and had even sent some of it to the ship on which he expected to sail for England.

But Washington had no thought of giving up. Others might say: "It's of no use to fight against such heavy odds." General Washington was not that kind of man. He summoned all his courage and energy to face the dark outlook, watching for the opportunity to turn suddenly upon his overconfident enemy and strike a blow.

WASHINGTON GIVES NEW HOPE TO THE PATRIOT CAUSE IN A SURPRISE ATTACK ON THE BRITISH TROOPS AT TRENTON

An opportunity for attack came soon. Stationed at Trenton was a body of British troops, made up of Hessians

(Germans mainly from Hesse-Cassel, hired as soldiers by King George). Washington knew it was their custom to feast and revel on Christmas night, and he planned to surprise them.

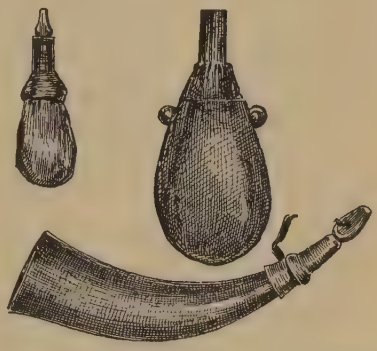
With 2,400 picked men he prepared to cross the Dela-

British and Hessian Soldiers.

ware River at a point nine miles above Trenton. The weather was bitter cold, and as the soldiers marched to the place of crossing, some whose feet were almost bare left bloody footprints on the snow.

At sunset the troops began to cross. It was a terrible night. Angry gusts of wind and great blocks of ice swept along by the swift current threatened every moment to dash their frail boats to pieces.

From the Trenton side of the river, General Knox, who had been sent ahead by Washington, loudly shouted to let the struggling boatmen know where to land. It took ten hours to make the dangerous crossing. A long night this must have been to Washington, as he stood in the midst of the wild storm, anxious, yet hopeful that the next day would bring him victory.



Powder-Horn, Bullet-Flask, and Buckshot-Pouch Used in the Revolution.

Not until four in the morning were the already weary men in line to march, and Trenton was still nine miles away. A fearful storm of snow and sleet beat fiercely upon them as they advanced. Surely such courage and hardihood deserved its reward!

The Hessians were sleeping heavily after their night's feasting, quite unaware of the approaching army. About sunrise they were awakened by the firing guns, and so complete was their surprise that after a brief struggle they were easily captured.

News of this brilliant victory shot through the colonies like a gleam of light in the darkness. It brought hope to the country and put courage into the army. The British were amazed at the daring feat, and Cornwallis decided not

to leave America for a time. Awakened from his dream of security, he advanced from his headquarters with a large force, hoping to capture Washington's army at Trenton.

At nightfall, January 2, 1777, he took his stand on the farther side of a small creek, near Trenton, believing he had Washington in a trap. "At last," said Cornwallis, "we have run down the old fox, and we will bag him in the morning." In the morning again!

But Washington was too sly a fox for Cornwallis to bag. During the night he led his army around Cornwallis's camp, and, pushing on to Princeton, defeated the British rear-guard, which had not yet joined the main body. He then retired in safety to his winter quarters among the hills about Morristown.

During this fateful campaign Washington had handled his army in a masterly way. He had begun with bitter defeat; he had ended with glorious victory. The Americans now felt that their cause was by no means hopeless. It was well that they had this encouragement, for the year that began with the battle of Princeton (1777) was to test their courage and loyalty to the uttermost.

THE FAILURE OF BURGOYNE'S INVASION AND THE SURRENDER OF HIS ARMY RESULT IN A TREATY WITH FRANCE AND MILITARY AID

It had become plain to the British that if they could get control of the Hudson River, thus cutting off New Eng-

land from the other States, the Americans could be easily defeated. They adopted this plan: Burgoyne, with nearly 8,000 men, was to march from Canada, by way of Lake Champlain and Fort Edward, to Albany, where he was to meet a small force of British, who also were to come from Canada by way of the Mohawk valley. The main army of 18,000 men, under General Howe, was expected to sail up the Hudson from New York. The plan might have succeeded if General Howe had done his part. Let us see what happened.

Howe thought that before going up the Hudson to meet Burgoyne, he would march across New Jersey and capture Philadelphia. It seemed an easy thing to do. But Washington's army proving to be a greater hindrance than he had expected, he returned to New York and sailed with his army for Chesapeake Bay. Again he was hindered. The voyage took two months, much longer than he expected.

When at length he landed and advanced toward Philadelphia, he was still held back. Washington's army at Brandywine Creek grimly confronted him. Here a battle was fought and, although the Americans were defeated, Washington handled his army in such a way that it took Howe two weeks to reach Philadelphia, only twenty-six miles from the field of battle.

Thus Washington had skilfully held Howe until it was too late for him to go to Burgoyne.

Burgoyne's troubles were piling up. Not only had

Howe disappointed him, but the army which he had expected from the Mohawk valley had been forced to retreat to Canada. He was therefore in a difficult position. The

General Burgoyne Surrendering to General Gates.

Americans were blocking his advance, and they were also in the rear, preventing his retreat and holding up his supplies from Canada. He could not move in either direction.

Thus left to himself, there was nothing for him to do but fight or surrender. Like a good soldier he fought, and the result was two battles near Saratoga, in which the

British were defeated. On October 17, 1777, Burgoyne had to surrender his entire army of 6,000 regular troops. Such was the way in which the British plan worked out. The result was a great blow to England.

To America, on the other hand, the victory was a cause for joy. It made hope stronger at home; it won confidence abroad. France had been watching closely to see whether the Americans were likely to win, before giving open aid. Now she was quite willing to enter into a treaty with them, even though such a course should lead to war with England.

In bringing about this treaty with France, Benjamin Franklin played a prominent part. After the adoption of the Declaration of Independence—and you will remember that he was a member of the committee appointed to draft that great state paper—he was sent by Congress to France to ask aid for the American cause. His simple dress and quiet manner must have contrasted strangely with the fashion and elegance of the French court. But as a true-hearted man he was welcomed. Feasts and parades were given in his honor, and his picture was displayed in public places. His personal influence went far toward securing the aid which France gave us.

LAFAYETTE JOINS THE AMERICAN ARMY

Even before our treaty with France, she had secretly sent us aid, both in money and army supplies. Able Frenchmen also had crossed the Atlantic to join our army.

The most noted French officer in the American army was the Marquis de Lafayette. The circumstances under which he came were quite romantic. He was but nineteen when he heard for the first time at a dinner-party the story of the American people fighting for their liberty. It interested and deeply moved him. For in his own land a desire for freedom had been growing, and he had been in sympathy with it. Now he made it his business to find out more about this war, and then he quickly decided to help all he could.

Marquis de Lafayette.

He belonged to one of the noblest families of France, and was very wealthy. He had a young wife and a baby, whom he regretted to leave, but he believed that his duty called him to join the cause of freedom. His wife was proud of the lofty purpose of her noble husband, and encouraged him to carry out his plan.

His family, however, being one of influence, were very angry when he made known his purpose, and tried to prevent his leaving France. They put so many obstacles in his way that he had to buy a ship and supplies with his own money. Then, disguising himself as a post-boy, he got away without being found out.

Arriving at Philadelphia, he was cordially received by Congress and given the rank of major-general. In accepting it, Lafayette asked that he might serve without pay.

He proved to be a very lovable young man, and a warm

Lafayette Offering His Services to Franklin.

friendship sprang up between him and Washington. He became a member of Washington's military family, and was always proud to serve his chief. He spent his money freely and risked his life to help the cause of American liberty, an unselfish service which we can never forget.

At the close of the year 1777 Washington moved the army to Valley Forge to spend the winter. This was a

strong position among the hills about twenty miles northwest of Philadelphia.

It was a period of intense suffering. "For some days

Winter at Valley Forge.

past," wrote Washington, "there has been little less than famine in the camp." Most of the soldiers were in rags, only a few had bed-clothing. Many had to sit by the fire

all night to keep warm, and some of the sick soldiers were without beds, or even loose straw to lie upon. Nearly 3,000 were barefoot, and many had frozen feet because of the lack of shoes. It makes one heart-sick to read about what these brave men passed through during that wretched winter.

Yet, in spite of bitter trials and distressing times, Washington never doubted that in the end the American cause would triumph. A beautiful story is told showing his courageous faith while in the midst of these pitiful scenes.

One day when "Friend Potts," a good Quaker farmer, was near the camp, he saw Washington on his knees in the woods, his cheeks wet with tears, praying for help and guidance. When the farmer returned to his home, he said to his wife: "George Washington will succeed! George Washington will succeed! The Americans will secure their independence."

"What makes thee think so, Isaac?" inquired his wife.

"I have heard him pray, Hannah, out in the woods to-day, and the Lord will surely hear his prayer. He will, Hannah; thee may rest assured He will."

Many events happened between this winter at Valley Forge and the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, but never again while the war lasted was the sky so dark. Washington was leading his army through the valley of despair. We cannot follow him through the remainder of the war, which, under his loyal and competent leadership,

was brought to a successful close. But we shall meet him later when his country once more seeks his firm and wise guidance.

Some Things to Think About

1. Why was Washington better fitted than any other man to be commander-in-chief of the army? What kind of army did Washington have when he took command at Cambridge?
2. Read the Declaration of Independence. When was it signed? What kind of men were the signers? What risks did they run in signing such a document? What did the Declaration of Independence mean to the future of America?
3. How did Washington show his ability as a general at New York? What great mistake did General Howe make at that time?
4. What did Nathan Hale do? Why was his task so hazardous? What kind of courage did it call for?
5. Imagine yourself with Washington in the attack upon Trenton, and tell what happened.
6. Trace on the map Burgoyne s expedition. What did he expect to accomplish? What were the results of the capture of Burgoyne?
7. Who was Lafayette, and what did he do for the American cause?
8. Describe as well as you can the sufferings of the Americans at Valley Forge.
9. What were the qualities in Washington's character that placed him so high in the hearts of the people? Do you think the struggle for independence would have been successful without such leadership as his?

CHAPTER XV

NATHANAEL GREENE AND OTHER HEROES UPHOLD AMERICA'S CAUSE IN THE SOUTH

GREENE IS ONE OF WASHINGTON'S MOST TRUSTED GENERALS

We have given a rapid glance at the part which Washington took in the Revolution. He, as commander-in-chief, stands first. But he would have been quick to say that much of the credit for the success in that uneven struggle was due to the able generals who carried out his plans. Standing next to Washington himself as a military leader was Nathanael Greene.

Nathanael Greene.

As you remember, the first fighting of the Revolution was in New England, near Boston. Failing there, the British tried to get control of the Hudson River and the Middle States, and again they were baffled.

One course remained, and that was to get control of the Southern States. Beginning in Georgia, they captured Savannah. Two years later, in May (1780), they captured

General Lincoln and all his force at Charleston, and in the following August badly defeated General Gates at Camden, South Carolina, where, as successor to General Lincoln, he was commanding a new army.

The patriot cause was suffering. Unless a skilful general should take charge in the South, the British would soon have possession. Washington had great faith in General Greene, and appointed him to this field. Let us see what led the commander-in-chief to choose him.

Nathanael Greene was born in Warwick, Rhode Island, in 1742. His father, who on week-days was a blacksmith and miller, on Sundays was a Quaker preacher. Nathanael was trained to work at the forge and in the mill and in the fields as well. He was robust and active and, like young George Washington, a leader in outdoor sports. But with all his other activities he was also, like young Samuel Adams, a good student of books.

We like to think of these colonial boys going to school and playing at games just as boys do now, quite unaware of the great things waiting for them to do in the world. Had they known of their future, they could have prepared in no better way than by taking their faithful part in the work and honest sport of each day as it came.

Greene, being ten years younger than Washington, was about thirty-two years old when the "Boston Tea Party" and those other exciting events ushered in the Revolution.

Although news did not travel so rapidly then as now,

Greene was soon aware that war was likely to break out at any time, and he took an active part in preparing for it. He helped to organize a company of soldiers and made the trip from Rhode Island to Boston to get a musket for himself. In Boston he watched with much interest the British regulars taking their drill, and brought back not only a musket, hidden under some straw in his wagon, but also a runaway British soldier, who was to drill his company.

The War in the South.

When the battle of Bunker Hill proved that the war had actually begun, Rhode Island raised three regiments of troops, and placed Greene at their head as general. On Washington's arrival to take command of the American troops at Boston, General Greene had the honor of welcoming him in the name of the army.

GENERAL GREENE FACES A MOST DIFFICULT TASK

Greene was a stalwart man six feet tall, with a frank intelligent face. Quickly he won the friendship and confidence

of Washington, who always trusted him with positions calling for courage and ability. That explains why he was chosen, in 1780, as commander of the American army in the South.

When General Greene reached the Carolinas in De-

The Meeting of Greene and Gates upon Greene's Assuming Command.

cember, he found the army in a pitiable condition. There was but one blanket for every three soldiers, and only enough food to last three days. The soldiers had lost heart because of defeat; they were angry because they had not been paid, and many were ill because they had not enough

to eat. They camped in rude huts made of fence-rails, corn-stalks, and brushwood.

General Greene set to work with a will to make his army fit and to inspire the men with his own courage. By wise planning, hard labor, and skilful handling of the army, he managed to get food and supplies, and put new spirit into his men. Thus he was able to ward off the enemy.

Soon he won the confidence and love of both officers and soldiers. A story is told that shows his sympathy for them and their faith in him. On one occasion Greene said to a barefoot sentinel: "How you must suffer from cold!" Not knowing that he spoke to his general, the soldier replied: "I do not complain. I know I should have what I need if our general could get supplies." It was indeed fortunate for General Greene that in this time of need his men were so loyal to him.

DANIEL MORGAN, THE GREAT RIFLEMAN, WINS A BRILLIANT VICTORY OVER COLONEL TARLETON

Among Greene's officers was one who later became noted for his brilliant, daring exploits. This was Daniel Morgan, the great rifleman. You will be interested to hear some of his thrilling experiences.

When about nineteen years old, Morgan began his military career as a teamster in Braddock's army, and at the time of Braddock's defeat he did good service bringing wounded men off the battle-field. It was about this time

that he became known to Washington, who liked and trusted him. The young man was so dependable and brave that he was steadily promoted.

During the Revolution his services were, in more than one critical situation, of great value to the American cause. In the campaign which ended with Burgoyne's defeat, for instance, his riflemen fought like heroes. General Burgoyne, after his surrender, exclaimed to General Morgan: "Sir, you command the finest regiment in the world."

Indeed, it was regarded at that time as the best regiment in the American army, and this was largely due to Morgan's ability in handling his men. He made them feel as if they were one family. He was always thoughtful for their health and comfort, and he appealed to their pride, but never to their fear.

He was a very tall and strong man, with handsome features and a remarkable power to endure. His manner was quiet and refined, and his noble bearing indicated a high sense of honor. He was liked by his companions because he was always good-natured and ready for the most daring adventure.

General Greene made good use of this true patriot, and not long after taking command of the army he sent Morgan with 900 picked men westward to threaten the British outposts. General Cornwallis, in command of the British army in the South, ordered Colonel Tarleton to lead a body of soldiers against Morgan.

Early in the morning of January 17, 1781, after a hard night march, Tarleton, overconfident of success, attacked Morgan at Cowpens, in the northern part of South Carolina. The Americans stood up bravely against the attack and won a brilliant victory. The British lost almost their entire force, including 600 prisoners.

Cornwallis was bitterly disappointed, for his plan, undertaken in such confidence, had ended in a crushing defeat. However, gathering his forces together, he set out to march rapidly across country in pursuit of Morgan, hoping to overwhelm him and recapture the 600 British prisoners before he could join Greene's army. But Morgan was too wary to be caught napping, and, suspecting that this would be Cornwallis's game, he retreated rapidly in a northeasterly direction toward that part of the army under Greene.

Meantime Greene had heard the glorious news of the American victory at Cowpens, and he too realized that there was great danger of Morgan's falling into the hands of Cornwallis. To prevent this, and at the same time to draw Cornwallis far away from his supplies at Wilmington, he decided to go to Morgan's relief.

Sending his army by an easier, roundabout route, he himself with a small guard rode swiftly a distance of 150 miles across the rough country, and joined Morgan on the last day of January.

Morgan was cleverly retreating, with Cornwallis in hot pursuit. For ten days the race continued. The chances

were in favor of Cornwallis, for his army was larger, besides being trained and disciplined. But Greene was so alert and skilful that he escaped every danger and saved his army.

In this exciting campaign valuable aid was given by "partisans" in the South. These were private companies, not part of the regular army. They had been formed in the South by both sides, and that is why they were called "partisans."

SOME EXPLOITS OF MARION'S FAMOUS BRIGADE. THE BRITISH CALL HIM THE "SWAMP FOX"

Perhaps the most noted partisan leader was Francis Marion. He was born in Georgetown, South Carolina, in 1732, and was therefore the same age as Washington. Although as a child he was frail, he became a strong man, short and slight of frame, but hardy in constitution.

Francis Marion.

When the British began to swarm into South Carolina, Marion raised and drilled a company of neighbors and friends, known as "Marion's Brigade." These men were without uniforms or tents, and they served without pay. They did not look much like soldiers on parade, but were

among the bravest and best fighters of the Revolution. Their swords were beaten out of old mill-saws at the country forge, and their bullets were made largely from pewter mugs and other pewter utensils. Their rations were very

Marion Surprising a British Wagon-Train.

scant and simple. Marion, their leader, as a rule ate hominy and potatoes, and drank water flavored with a little vinegar.

The story is told that one day a British officer came to the camp with a flag of truce. After the officers had talked, Marion, with his usual courtesy, invited the visitor to dinner. We can imagine the Englishman's surprise when, on a log which made the camp table, there was served a dinner consisting only of roasted sweet potatoes passed on pieces of

bark! The officer was still more amazed to learn that even potatoes were something of a luxury.

Marion's brigade of farmers and hunters seldom numbered more than seventy, and often less than twenty. But with this small force he annoyed the British beyond measure by rescuing prisoners and capturing supply-trains and outposts.

It was the custom of his men, when hard pressed by a superior force, to scatter, each man looking out for himself. Often they would dash headlong into a dense, dark swamp, to meet again at some place agreed upon. Even while they were still in hiding they would sometimes dart out just as suddenly as they had disappeared, and surprise another squad of British which might be near at hand. "Swamp Fox" was the name the British gave to Marion.

GREENE PROVES MORE THAN A MATCH FOR CORNWALLIS

With the aid of such partisan bands, and with skilful handling of his army, Greene was more than a match for Cornwallis. He was not strong enough just yet for a pitched battle, but he kept Cornwallis chasing without losing his own army. That was about all he could hope to do for a while.

But when later he received recruits from Virginia, he thought it wise to strike a blow, even though he could not win a victory. Turning, therefore, upon his enemy, he

fought a battle at Guilford Court House, North Carolina (March, 1781).

He was defeated, but came off as well as he expected, and so crippled the British army that Cornwallis had to retreat. He went to the coast to get supplies for his half-starved men. Like the battle of Bunker Hill, this was a dearly bought victory for the British.

Cornwallis now saw clearly that he could not hope longer for success in the South, and having taken on fresh supplies, he marched northward to try his luck at Yorktown, Virginia.

WITH THE AID OF THE FRENCH FLEET AND ARMY WASHINGTON WINS A BRILLIANT VICTORY THAT PRACTICALLY ENDS THE WAR

Washington, with an army of French and American troops, was in camp on the Hudson River, waiting for the coming of the French fleet to New York. That city was still in the hands of the British. As soon as the fleet should arrive, Washington expected to attack the British army in New York by land, while the fleet attacked by sea.

But the French headed for the Chesapeake instead of New York, as expected. When this information came to Washington, he worked out a bold and brilliant scheme. It was to march his army as quickly and as secretly as possible to Yorktown, a distance of 400 miles, there join the American army under Lafayette, and, combining with the

French fleet on its arrival, capture the British under Cornwallis.

It was a daring scheme and full of danger, but it succeeded so well that Washington accomplished his purpose completely. On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis was forced to surrender his entire army of 8,000 men.

The surrender at Yorktown ended the fighting, although the treaty of peace was not signed until 1783. By that treaty the Americans won their independence from England. The country which they could now call their own extended from Canada to Florida, and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell what you can about General Greene's early life.
2. What was the condition of his army when he took command in the South? How did he prove his strength at that time? What was the great task before him?
3. Locate on the map the scene of Greene's operations against Cornwallis.
4. What kind of man was Daniel Morgan, and what do you think of him?
5. Tell all you can about Marion, the "Swamp Fox," and his ways of making trouble for the British.
6. How did the co-operation of the French make possible the final great victory at Yorktown?
7. When did the Revolution begin? When did it end? What did the Americans win by the treaty? Show on the map the extent of our country following the treaty.
8. Name and locate the original thirteen states which gained their independence.

CHAPTER XVI

JOHN PAUL JONES IS THE FIRST GREAT SEA-CAPTAIN OF THE AMERICAN NAVY

While the Revolution was being fought out on the land, important battles were taking place also at sea. Until this war began, the Americans had no need of a navy because the mother country had protected them. But when unfriendly feeling arose, Congress ordered war-vessels to be built. These were very useful in capturing British vessels, many of which were loaded with arms and ammunition intended for British soldiers. Powder, as you will remember, was sorely needed by Washington's army.

John Paul Jones.

Among the men who commanded the American war-vessels were some sea-captains who became famous, the most noted being John Paul Jones.

He was of Scottish birth. His father, John Paul, was a gardener, who lived on the southwestern coast of Scotland. The cottage in which our hero spent his early boyhood days

stood near the beautiful bay called Solway Firth, which made a safe harbor for ships in time of storm.

Here little John Paul heard many sailors tell thrilling stories of adventure at sea and in far-away lands. Here, also, to the inlets along the shore, the active lad and his playmates took their tiny boats and made believe they were sailors, John Paul always acting as captain. Sometimes when he was tired and alone, he would sit by the hour watching the big waves rolling in, and dreaming perhaps of the day when he would become a great sea-captain.

When he was only twelve, he wished to begin his life as a real sailor, and his father apprenticed him to a merchant at Whitehaven, England, who owned a vessel and traded in foreign lands. Soon John Paul went on a voyage to Virginia, and while the vessel was being loaded with tobacco, he visited an older brother, who owned a plantation at Fredericksburg.

For six years John Paul remained with the Whitehaven merchant, learning much about good seamanship. After the merchant failed in business, John Paul still continued to follow a seafaring life, and in a short time became a captain. But his life at sea was interrupted when his brother in Virginia died, for he went to Fredericksburg to manage his brother's plantation.

It was now his intention to spend the rest of his life here, but, like Patrick Henry, he failed as a farmer. It would seem that the sea was always calling to him.

When, therefore, the Revolution broke out, he offered his services to Congress, and at that time changed his name to John Paul Jones. Just why, we do not know.

Congress appointed him a first lieutenant, and in the second year of the war put him in command of two vessels. With these he captured sixteen prizes in six weeks.

In the following year he was appointed captain of the Ranger, and sent to France with letters to Benjamin Franklin, who was then American commissioner at the French court, trying to secure aid for the American cause.

At that time English vessels were annoying American coasts by burning and destroying property. Jones got permission from Franklin to attack British coasts in the same way, and he was allowed to sail from France in the Ranger with that purpose in view.

His plan was to skirt the western coast of England and set fire to the large shipping-yards at Whitehaven, the harbor he knew so well in boyhood. He meant to burn all the 300 vessels lying at anchor there. Although he set fire to only one large ship, he alarmed the people along the whole coast. The warning was carried from town to town: "Beware of Paul Jones, the pirate!"

An English war-vessel, the Drake, was sent out to capture the Ranger. As the Drake carried two more guns and a crew better drilled for fighting, it was thought she would make short work of the American ship. But after a battle of an hour she surrendered. The English vessel lost

many men, while the Ranger lost only two men killed and six wounded.

After this brilliant victory the young captain put back to France. There he found great rejoicing among the peo-

Battle Between the Ranger and the Drake.

ple, whose good-will was more with America than with England. And as war had already broken out between France and England, the French king was quite willing to furnish Jones with a considerable naval force.

CAPTAIN JONES HARASSES THE COASTS OF THE BRITISH ISLES AND IS VICTORIOUS IN A DESPERATE SEA DUEL

In August, 1779, Captain Jones put to sea with a fleet

of four vessels. He named his flag-ship Bon Homme Richard (bonom′rē-shär′) after the Richard of "Poor Richard's Almanack," which, you will remember, Benjamin Franklin had written.

In this ship, which was old, he set out to cruise along the western coast of Ireland, searching for English merchant vessels. He continued his cruise northward around Scotland and down its eastern coast. Then he sailed up and down the eastern coast of England, still seeking merchant vessels.

At noon on the 23d of September Jones sighted a fleet of forty-two merchantmen, guarded by two English ships of war, all sailing from the north. He at once decided to make an attack, which he began early in the evening. The action was mainly between the Richard and the English man-of-war Serapis, which was a large ship, new and swift, and very much better than the Richard.

During the first hour the American vessel got the worst of the fight, and "was leaking like a basket." The English captain, feeling sure of victory, called out: "Has your ship struck?" Paul Jones shouted back: "I have not yet begun to fight!"

As the British vessel came alongside his own for a more deadly struggle, Jones with his own hands lashed the two together. Soon both were badly leaking, but the fighting went on as fiercely as ever. Presently both caught fire. Then Jones turned his cannon upon the mainmast of the

Serapis, and when it threatened to fall the English captain surrendered. The Richard could not have held out much longer, for she had already begun to sink. But after all it was the English ship and not the American that "struck" the flag.

This desperate sea duel lasted from half past seven in the evening until ten o'clock. It was important in its results, for it won much-needed respect for our flag, and gave a wonderful uplift to the American cause. The victor, John Paul Jones, who was loaded with honors, from that day took rank with the great sea-captains of the world.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell all you can about the early life of John Paul Jones. How did he, even in boyhood, show his ability to lead others?
2. Why did the English call him a pirate when he was sailing along the British coasts in order to destroy property?
3. What was the outcome of the desperate sea duel between the Bon Homme Richard and the Serapis?
4. What would a strong navy have meant to the Americans in the war for independence?

CHAPTER XVII

FAMOUS BACKWOODSMEN WHO DARE TO CROSS THE MOUNTAINS INTO THE VALLEYS OF THE OHIO AND THE TENNESSEE

EVEN AS A BOY DANIEL BOONE IS SKILFUL IN HUNTING AND WOODCRAFT

You remember that when the Last French War began, in 1756, the English colonists lived almost entirely east of the Alleghany Mountains. If you will look at your map, you will see how small a part of our present great country they occupied.

Even up to the beginning of the Revolution there were few settlers west of the Alleghanies, where the Americans had done little to make good their claim to the land. But at the close of the war our western boundary-line had been pushed as far as the Mississippi River. This was done by the early hunters and backwoodsmen who did great service in opening up Western lands.

One of the most famous of these pioneers was Daniel Boone, who was born in Pennsylvania in 1735. As a boy, Daniel liked to wander in the woods with musket and fishing-rod, and was never so happy as when alone in the wild forest. The story is told that while a mere lad he built himself a rough shelter of logs some distance from

home, and there he would spend days at a time, with only his rifle for company.

As he learned early to shoot, we may be sure he never went hungry. The game which his rifle brought down he would cook over a pile of burning sticks, and we can almost taste its woodland flavor. Then at night on his bed of leaves, under a starlit sky, with a pelt for covering, he would fall into dreamless slumber. A prince might have envied him.

Daniel Boone.

When he was about thirteen years old, his father removed to North Carolina and settled on the Yadkin River, and there the boy grew to manhood. After his marriage, at twenty, he built himself a hut far out in the forest, beyond the homes of the other settlers. But he was a restless man and he looked with longing toward the rugged mountains in the west.

BOONE MAKES HIS FIRST SCOUTING TRIPS INTO KENTUCKY WHERE THE EARLIEST ATTEMPT AT SETTLEMENT ENDS IN DISASTER

Boone was twenty-five when he made the first long hunt we know about; and ten years later he went with

four other hunters to explore the wilderness of Kentucky. The life in the forest was one of danger and hardship, and part of the time he was alone.

The country pleased him so well that by September, 1773, he sold his farm in North Carolina and went to settle in Kentucky. Besides his wife and children, five other families and forty men, driving their horses and cattle before them, joined his party.

But while still on its way, near a narrow and difficult pass in the mountains, the little company was set upon by a band of Indians. Six men were killed, among them Boone's eldest son, and the cattle were scattered. This misfortune caused the company to turn back to a settlement on the Clinch River. But Daniel Boone was not one to give up, and he could not forget the beautiful Kentucky region.

It had already become well known by report. The Indians called it "a dark and bloody ground," for, as an old chief told Boone, the Indians had roamed over it for hundreds of years and many tribes hunted and fought there.

But since none of the tribes really owned the land, it was not possible to buy any part of it outright. Yet, to avoid strife, a friend of Boone, Richard Henderson, and a few others made treaties with the most powerful tribe, the Cherokees, who said that they might settle there.

As soon as it became certain that the Indians would not make trouble, Henderson sent Boone, in charge of thirty men, to open a pathway from the Holston River on the

east through Cumberland Gap to the Kentucky River. This pathway was the beginning of the famous "Wilderness Road."

BOONE MAKES A PERMANENT SETTLEMENT AT BOONESBOROUGH

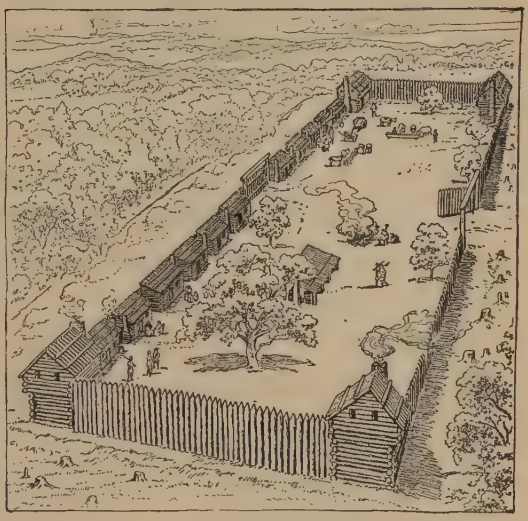
When Boone and his followers reached the Kentucky River, they built a fort on its left bank and called it Boonesborough. Then Boone went back to the Clinch River and brought on his wife and children. This fort, with the outlying cabins, made the first permanent settlement in Kentucky.

Boone was a man you would have liked to know. Even the Indians admired him. He was tall and slender, with muscles of iron, and so strong that he could endure great hardship. Though quiet and serious, his courage never failed in face of danger, and men trusted him. He was kind, too, and sympathetic, and made lasting friendships. His vigorous and sterling qualities commanded respect everywhere.

As a rule he wore the Indian garb of fur cap, fringed hunting-shirt, moccasins, and leggings, all made from the skins of fur-bearing animals, because this was best suited to his surroundings.

Life in such wild country was not without its exciting adventures. One nearly caused the settlement to lose its leader, and came about through the need of salt.

We get salt so easily that it is hard to imagine the difficulty which those settlers, living far back from the ocean, had in obtaining this necessary part of their food. They had to get it from "salt-licks," as they called the grounds about the salt-water springs. The men would boil the salt water from the springs until the water evaporated, leaving the salt.



Boonesborough.

Boone with twenty-nine other men had gone, early in 1778, to the Blue Licks to make salt for the settlement. In a few weeks they were able to send back a load so large that it took three men to carry it. Hardly had they started, however, when the men remaining, including Boone, were surprised by eighty or ninety Indians and captured.

The Indians admired Boone because he was a mighty hunter, and they liked him because he was cheerful. So they took him to their home and adopted him into the tribe.

He remained with them two months, making the best

of the life he had to lead. But when he overheard the Indians planning to attack Boonesborough, he made up his mind to escape and give his friends warning.

He arrived in Boonesborough after a journey of 160 miles, during which he had but one meal, for he dared not use his gun nor build a fire for fear his foes might find out where he was. He reached the fort in time to help in beating off the attacking party. This is only one of the many narrow and thrilling escapes of this fearless backwoodsman, who for years continued to be the able leader of the settlers at Boonesborough.

But after Kentucky was admitted as a state into the Union (1791), Boonesborough became too tame for the bold hunter, and four years later he moved still farther west. The wild, lonely life of the forest never lost its charm for him, even down to his last days.

JAMES ROBERTSON AND JOHN SEVIER ARE DARING LEADERS IN THE SETTLEMENT OF TENNESSEE

Another pioneer of these days was James Robertson, born in Virginia in 1742. Like Boone, he was a noted hunter; but hunting and exploring were not his reasons for going into the wilderness. He was, first of all, a pioneer settler seeking rich farming lands to make a good home for his family.

With this purpose, he left his home in North Carolina in 1770, when he was twenty-eight, to seek his fortune in the

mountains, whose summits he could see far away to the west. With no companion but his horse and no protection but his rifle, he slowly and patiently made his way through the trackless woods, crossing mountain range after mountain range, until he came to the region where the rivers began to flow toward the west.

He brought home such glowing accounts of this wonderful country that by the following spring (1771) sixteen fam-

Early Settlements in Kentucky and Tennessee.

ilies were ready to go with him to make a settlement. Arriving at the Watauga River, the newcomers joined some Virginians who were already on the ground.

Robertson soon became one of the leading men, and was very prosperous and successful; but after eight years a restless craving for change and adventure stole over him, and he pushed on once more to seek a new home still deeper in the forest.

The place he chose was the beautiful country lying along the great bend of the Cumberland River. Other bold pioneers eagerly joined him in the new venture, and took up the work of making a new settlement. This was the beginning of Nashville. Robertson's leadership was of the greatest service to the Tennessee settlers.

Another daring leader who did much to build up the settlements in Tennessee was John Sevier. Born in Virginia in 1745, Sevier was but three years younger than Robertson, and was closely associated with him in later life.

He left school when he was sixteen and married before he was seventeen. About six miles from his father's house he put up a building which was dwelling, storehouse, and fort all in one. Here on the frontier he carried on a thriving trade with settlers and Indians, and was so successful that by the time he was twenty-six he was looked upon as a rich man.

It was while he was engaged in his trading business that Sevier heard of Robertson's settlement in the west, and became interested in it as a possible home for himself and family. In 1772 he decided to ride through the forests to the Watauga settlement and find out what kind of place it was.

Alone over the mountains and through the woods he made the journey. When he met Robertson, they were friends at once. Sevier decided to join the settlement on the Watauga, and went back to bring his wife and two

children. Returning with them, he entered heartily into the common life of the frontier, with its many hardships and pleasures; and when, some years later, Robertson left Watauga to go to the Cumberland valley, Sevier became the most prominent man in the colony. He was active in the public interests even to the last years of his long life.

HOW THE BACKWOODSMEN LIVE

Let us join a group of travellers as it starts out to cross the mountains. Each family has its pack-horse—a few families have two—carrying household goods. These are not bulky, for pioneer life is simple, and the settlers have at most only what they need. There are, of course, some rolls of bedding and clothing, a few cooking utensils, a few packages of salt and seed corn, and a flask or two of medicine. The pack-horse carries also the mother, and perhaps a very small child or two. The boys who are old enough to shoulder rifles march in front with their father, ready to shoot game for food, or to stand guard against Indians. Some of the older children drive the cows which the settlers are taking along with them.

After reaching the place selected for their settlement, the younger children are set to clearing away the brush and piling it up in heaps ready for burning. The father and the elder sons, who are big enough to wield an axe, lose no time in cutting down trees and making a clearing for the log cabin. All work with a will, and soon the cabin is ready.

They make the furniture also, which, like the cabin itself, is rude and simple. A bedstead is set up in a corner, a wash-stand is placed near by, and a few three-legged stools are put here and there; and of course there is a table to eat at.

If our pioneers are well to do, there may be tucked away in some pack a wool blanket, but usually the chief covering on the bed is the dried skin of some animal—deer, bear, or perhaps buffalo.

There is plenty of food, though of course it is plain and simple, consisting mostly of game. Instead of the pork and beef which are largely eaten in the East, we shall find these settlers making their meal of bear's meat or of venison. For flour corn-meal is used. Each family has a mill for grinding the kernels into meal, while for beating it into hominy they use a crude mortar, made perhaps by burning a hole in the top of a block of wood.

Every backwoodsman must be able to use the rifle, for he has to provide his own meat and defend himself and family against attack. He must be skilful also in concealing himself, in moving noiselessly through the forests, and in imitating the notes and calls of different beasts and birds. Sharp eyes and ears must tell him where to look for his game, and his aim must be swift and sure.

But, most important of all, he must be able to endure hardship and exposure. Sometimes he lives for months in the woods with no food but meat, and no shelter but a

lean-to of brush or even the trunk of a hollow tree into which he may crawl.

Deer and bear are the most plentiful game; but now and then there is an exciting combat with wolves, panthers, or

Living-Room of the Early Settler.

cougars, while prowling Indians keep him ever on his guard. The pioneer must be strong, alert, and brave.

Each family depends upon itself for most of the necessaries of life. Each member has his own work. The father is the protector and provider; the mother is the housekeeper, the cook, the weaver, and the tailor. Father and sons work out-of-doors with axe, hoe, and sickle; while indoors the hum of the spinning-wheel or the clatter of the loom shows that mother and daughters are busily doing their part.

The Tennessee settler, like Boone's followers in Kentucky, dresses very much like the Indians, for that is the

easiest and most fitting way in which to clothe himself for the forest life he leads. And very fine do many stalwart figures appear in their fur cap and moccasins, the loose trousers, or simply leggings of buckskin, and the fringed hunting-shirt reaching nearly to the knees. It is held in by a broad belt having a tomahawk in one side and a knife in the other.

Grinding Indian Corn.

While this free outdoor life develops strong and vigorous bodies, there is not much schooling in these backwoods settlements. Most boys and girls learn very little except reading and writing and very simple ciphering, or arithmetic. If there are any schoolhouses at all, they are log huts, dimly lighted and furnished very scantily and rudely. The schoolmaster, as a rule, does not know much of books, and is quite untrained as a teacher. His discipline, though severe, is very poor. He receives only a little money, and for the rest of his wages he "boards around" with the families of the children he teaches, mak-

ing his stay longer or shorter according to the number of their children in school.

In many ways, as you see, the life of the pioneer child, while it was active and full of interest, was very different from yours. He learned, like his elders, to imitate bird-calls, to set traps, to shoot a rifle, and at twelve the little lad became a foot-soldier. He knew from just which loop-hole he was to shoot if the Indians attacked the fort, and he took pride in becoming a good marksman. He was carefully trained, too, to follow an Indian trail and to conceal his own when on the war-path—for such knowledge would be very useful to him as a hunter and fighter in the forests.

Some Things to Think About

1. Describe the dangers which the backwoodsmen faced in venturing west of the Alleghany Mountains?
2. How was Boone's early training of value to him in his life-work?
3. Daniel Boone seems to have had all the qualities needed for success as a pioneer. Describe the frontier. Tell all the things you would have to know how to do to provide yourself with food, clothing, and shelter.
4. What other things would you have to know how to do to safeguard your life in the wilderness?
5. How are all of these things provided for to-day?
6. Find on the map the Cumberland Gap. Why was this pathway so important at that time?
7. Find on the map the states which were later formed where Boone, Robertson, and Sevier were pioneers.

CHAPTER XVIII

HOW THE TERRITORY NORTH OF THE OHIO RIVER IS WON FOR AMERICA THROUGH THE FEARLESSNESS OF GEORGE ROGERS CLARK

CLARK LAYS HIS PLANS FOR THE CAMPAIGN

Among the foremost of those who promoted the westward growth of our country stands George Rogers Clark. He was born near Monticello, Virginia, November 19, 1752. He came of a good family and he received fairly good training in school. But he learned much more from life than from books.

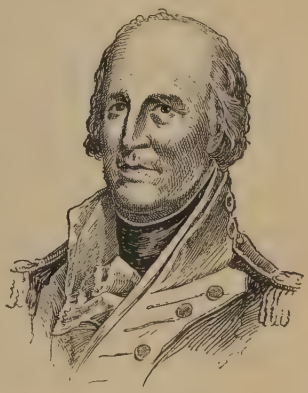
When twenty years old he was already a woodsman and surveyor on the upper Ohio, and also worked some as a farmer. About two years later, with measuring-rod and axe he moved on to Kentucky, where he continued his work as a surveyor.

A deadly struggle was going on here, you remember, with the Indians, who had been roused by the British against the backwoodsmen, and in this struggle Clark became a leader.

Let us see why it was that in hardly more than a year's time this young man of twenty-four rose to a position of leadership among the settlers, and was chosen one of their lawmakers.

He had a face that men trusted. His forehead was high

and broad under a mass of sandy hair, and his honest blue eyes looked out from under shaggy eyebrows. His strong body could endure almost any hardship, and his splendid health was matched by a daring spirit. He was ready to face any danger, and to struggle against difficulties that were almost insurmountable.



George Rogers Clark.

What he did would have been impossible except for these qualities, and we know that one does not come by them suddenly. It is only by bravely conquering the fears of every-day life that one gets them. It was in living with him day by day that the fearless hunters of Kentucky recognized in him a master spirit.

Clark, as you may imagine, was not content to remain in Kentucky merely as a hunter and a leader of war-parties to punish Indian bands. His keen mind had worked out a brilliant plan, and he was eager to put it through. It was nothing less than to conquer for his country the vast stretch of land lying north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi now included in the present Great Lake States.

In this vast region of forest and prairie the only settlements were the scattered French hamlets, begun in the early days of exploration, when the French occupied the land and traded with the Indians for fur.

These few villages, or trading-posts, which were defended by forts, were scattered here and there at convenient places along the river courses, the three strongest forts being at Vincennes, on the Wabash, at Kaskaskia, and at Detroit.

Clark saw that if this region should be conquered the prairies could be opened up for settlement. His first step in carrying out a plan of conquest was to secure aid from the governor of Virginia, who at this time was Patrick Henry. Early in October, 1777, he started out on horseback to ride through the forests and over the mountains to Williamsburg, then the capital of the state. In his haste he stopped but a single day at his father's house, the home of his childhood, and by pressing on he made the journey of 620 miles in one month.

The governor at once fell in with Clark's plan, and arranged to furnish $6,000 for the venture. Clark was to raise his own company among the frontiersmen. The whole burden of making the necessary preparations rested upon him alone, but with good heart he shouldered it, and in May, 1778, was ready to make the journey.

CLARK STARTS ON HIS LONG JOURNEY TO CAPTURE THE FORTS IN THE NORTHWEST

With 153 men Clark started from the Redstone settlements, on the Monongahela River. The men did not know exactly where they were going, but were willing to follow

their leader. The party stopped at both Pittsburg and Wheeling for needed supplies, and then in flatboats rowed or floated cautiously down the Ohio River. Toward the

George Rogers Clark in the Northwest.

last of the month, on reaching the falls near the present site of Louisville, they landed on an island, where Clark built a fort and drilled his men.

As they were about to take up their journey again, he said to them: "We are going to the Mississippi." Some faint-hearted ones wished to turn back, and Clark said, "You may go," for he wanted no discontented men in his following. From those remaining he carefully picked the ones who appeared strong enough to endure the hardships which he knew awaited them, and bidding the others good-by, they started off.

Since the success of the enterprise depended upon sur-

prising the enemy, it was important to press forward as quickly and secretly as possible. The men rowed hard, therefore, night and day, until they came to an island near the mouth of the Tennessee River. There they landed and began the march across country to Kaskaskia.

Clark on the Way to Kaskaskia.

On the evening of July 4 they arrived at the Kaskaskia River, only three miles from the fort, which was on the opposite bank. After resting in the woods until dusk, they pushed on to a little farmhouse only a mile from the fort. Here Clark obtained boats, and silently, in the darkness, took his men across the river.

In a few hours they had captured the fort and had the town under control. Clark made friends of the people by treating them kindly.

A little later a French priest volunteered to go to Vincennes and try to persuade the people there to take sides

The Officers of the Fort at Kaskaskia Were Giving a Dance When Clark Surprised Them.

with the Americans. His mission was successful; the English flag was pulled down and the American flag was raised over the fort.

CLARK'S HARD TASK IS TO HOLD THE FORTS WITH SO SMALL A FORCE

Although the life was gayer in these French villages than in the frontier settlements, and although the taking of Kaskaskia and Vincennes had been easy, Clark still had a hard task before him. His small force was made up of

men who were in the habit of doing as they pleased, and he could control them only through their personal liking for him.

Furthermore, he was so many hundred miles from Virginia that he must act without advice or help from the government. He must rely entirely upon himself. And we shall see whether he was equal to the situation.

You remember that when Clark's men started out they did not know how far they were to go. Now that their time of service was up they wanted to return. But by means of presents and promises Clark persuaded about a hundred to stay eight months longer. The others went home.

A weaker man would have been quite helpless with so small a force. Not so Clark. His wonderful power over people soon won the creoles of the French villages, and their young men willingly took the places of the woodsmen who fell away. But even so, it was a light force with which to hold the place.

The British officer at Detroit, Colonel Hamilton, who was in command of the vast region Clark was trying to conquer, was a man of great energy. Receiving news of what Clark had done, he prepared an expedition for the recapture of Vincennes.

Early in October (1779) he set out with 177 soldiers and 60 Indians, expecting to enlist other Indians on the way. By the time he had reached Vincennes his entire force

numbered about 500. The fort, as you remember, was but weakly defended, and it easily fell into Hamilton's hands (December 17, 1779).

If he had at once marched on to Kaskaskia, he might have captured Clark or driven him out of the Northwest. But because the weather was so cold, the route so long, and other difficulties were in the way, Hamilton resolved to wait until spring before going farther. And not expecting to need his soldiers before that time, he sent most of them back to Detroit.

About six weeks later Clark learned from an Indian trader how small the garrison was at Vincennes. You may be sure he did not wait for the season to change. Gathering a force of 170 men—nearly half of them creoles—in seven days he was on his way to Vincennes.

THE CAPTURE OF VINCENNES BY CLARK IS THE FINISHING STROKE FOR THE CONTROL OF THE NORTHWEST

Clark set out on his march on the 7th of February. The route, 240 miles in length, led eastward across what is now Illinois. As often happens at this season, thawing ice and snow had caused the rivers to overflow, and meadows and lowlands which they had to cross were under water from three to five feet deep.

We can hardly imagine the hardships of this midwinter journey with no houses for shelter, no roads, and no bridges across the swollen streams.

When by the end of a week Clark and his men reached the Wabash River, they found the floods so high that the land between its two branches was entirely under water, making an expanse five miles wide. They worked three days building a pirogue, or dugout canoe, with which to cross the deeper parts, and during this time they could get no food, for the flood had driven the game away, so that there was nothing to shoot. Progress was slow and extremely tiresome, for while crossing the flooded meadowland, the men had to march from morning till night up to their waists in mud and water.

By February 20 they were quite exhausted. There had been nothing to eat for nearly two days. Many of the creoles were so downcast that they began to talk of going home. Clark, with an attempt at good cheer, only laughed and said: "Go out and kill a deer."

Once on the side of the river where Vincennes stood, they began to feel more cheerful, for by night they expected to be at the fort. Yet one more bitter experience they had to pass through. Most of the way was still under water, and often they stepped into holes, dropping to their chins. They could only press forward, guided by their bold leader, until they finally reached a hillock where they spent the night.

During the weary hours of this exhausting day Clark had labored to keep up the spirits of his men in every way he could. In telling about it later, he said: "I received

much help from a little antic drummer, a boy with such a fun-loving spirit that he made the men laugh, in spite of their weariness, at his pranks and jokes."

On starting out again the next morning some were so weak and famished that they had to be taken in the canoes.

Clark's Advance on Vincennes.

Those who were strong enough to wade came to a place where the water was very deep, and, painfully struggling, began to huddle together as if all hope had fled. Then Clark suddenly blackened his face with gunpowder and, sounding the war-whoop like an Indian brave, fearlessly sprang forward. His men plunged after him without a word.

By dusk they were still six miles from Vincennes. Their clothing was drenched, their muscles ached with weariness, and they were well-nigh exhausted from lack of food. To make matters worse, the weather that night was bitter cold. But in the morning they bravely plodded onward. By the afternoon there was still a narrow lake to cross and a short march before they reached a tree-covered spot from which they could see the town and the fort. There they made a halt and, hidden by trees, prepared for the attack.

The fighting began that night, and continued until Hamilton gave up both fort and garrison on the following day. The capture of Vincennes was the finishing stroke of Clark's conquest. The whole of the vast region of the Northwest remained under American control until the end of the Revolution, when, by treaty, it formally became a part of our country. This was one of the boldest enterprises ever undertaken in our history.

Some Things to Think About

1. Who was George Rogers Clark? What was his brilliant plan? Explain by use of the map just what he proposed to do.
2. What do you feel was the most remarkable thing about his venture?
3. Tell about the capture of the forts. How do you suppose French people came to be living in English territory?
4. How do you account for Clark's success as a leader?
5. Why are we greatly indebted to Clark?
6. Indicate on the map the extent of the territory he won for his country. What states were later formed from this Northwest Territory?

CHAPTER XIX

THE NEW REPUBLIC, THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IS LAUNCHED

JAMES MADISON AND ALEXANDER HAMILTON PLAY A LARGE PART IN PERFECTING A NEW TYPE OF GOVERNMENT

During the Revolution, as we have learned, the army and the navy were controlled by the Continental Congress. But Congress was weak because it had no power to raise money by taxing the people. It could go to war with any unfriendly country, but it could not raise money for building forts or for paying soldiers. You remember that the American colonists took up arms against England because she tried to compel them to pay taxes which their own law-making bodies had not levied. During the war they still refused to pay any taxes which were not levied by their own states.

While fighting for their independence, the sense of danger caused the people to do some things that they would not do in times of peace. When the fighting ended, however, the separate states became selfish and petty in many ways. Each one began to act only for its own interests, without thinking of the welfare of the others. They all lacked the spirit of union.

One of the ways in which the states made plain this

selfish spirit was through their trade laws. New York, for instance, caused a serious clash with both Connecticut and New Jersey, by laying a duty on firewood coming from the one state and on cheese, butter, chickens, and vegetables coming from the other. As a result, the merchants of Connecticut agreed that they would not trade with the people of New York, and New Jersey required New York to pay $1,800 a year for the use of the land on which New York had built a lighthouse. Other states had troubles of the same kind.

There were disagreements about boundaries and land also. The most important of these was about the Northwest Territory, that vast area of land which George Rogers Clark and his men had won for their country. New York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts each claimed a part, and Virginia claimed nearly all of it. But at last they agreed that the Northwest Territory should belong to the whole country.

Amid all these troubles, however, Congress could do nothing. And the people of the thirteen states saw clearly that if they wished to have a strong country they must unite and work together under a strong government. With this thought in mind they sent some of their ablest men to a meeting, or convention, which was held in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, to work out a new plan.

These men spent four months in preparing the new form of government, which they called the Constitution. This

provided for three departments like those in the states. A body of men were to make the laws; this was Congress. Some one was to see that the laws were carried out; this was the President. There were to be bodies to explain the meaning of the laws passed by Congress and to try cases arising under them: these were the courts. The highest was called the Supreme Court.

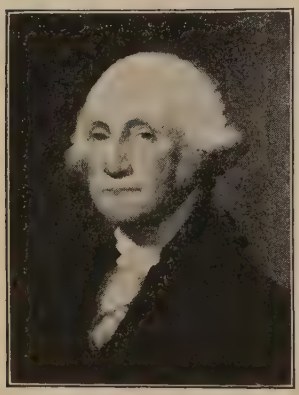
The convention had to decide many troublesome questions. One of these was how Congress should be made up. It was finally agreed that each state should have two men to represent it in the Senate, but that in the House the number of representatives should depend upon the number of people in the state.

Some other matters also caused long and heated discussion in the convention. One of these was about the regulation of commerce. Some slaveholding states feared that if Congress should have this power it would pass laws which would prevent the South from importing any more slaves. It was at last agreed to give Congress the power to regulate commerce but to allow slaves to be imported for twenty years longer.

The Constitution was a great state paper, and it was worked out by a remarkable group of men, fifty-five in all. The most distinguished was George Washington, and next to him stood Benjamin Franklin, the oldest man in the convention—eighty-one years old.

Much younger were two men who had a great deal to

do with giving the Constitution its spirit and final form. One of these was James Madison, thirty-six years old, and the other was Alexander Hamilton, only thirty. Although Hamilton was the more brilliant of the two, he was not so democratic, and, therefore, had not so much influence in the convention. Madison also was cooler in temper and spirit, and had more weight in the many long and able debates that took place. Indeed, his influence was so great that in later years men called him the "Father of the Constitution." He also kept a journal of the proceedings, which proved to be of great value when it was given to the world after his death.



George Washington.

Within three years from the close of the convention all of the thirteen states had given their consent to the new plan of government for the country. In other words, they had ratified the Constitution.

THE PEOPLE TURN TO WASHINGTON FOR THEIR FIRST PRESIDENT

When the states united under the Constitution to form a nation, they needed a President, and again all eyes turned to George Washington.

At the close of the Revolution, as already noted, he had

returned to Mount Vernon, his beautiful home overlooking the Potomac, and had again taken up the many-sided duties of plantation life. His busy day began when he

Washington's Home, Mount Vernon.

rose at four in the morning and ended when he went to bed at nine in the evening. Yet his life was not so quiet as we might think, for he had many visitors. After two years he wrote in his diary: "Dined with only Mrs. Washington, which I believe is the first instance of it since my retirement from public life."

But he was willing, at the call of the people, to give up this life of contentment and pleasure in order to serve his country. He was elected President without opposition,

and on April 16, 1789, began the seven days' journey to New York, then the capital city of the United States.

A GRATEFUL PEOPLE WELCOME WASHINGTON ALL ALONG THE WAY TO NEW YORK, WHERE HE TAKES THE OATH OF OFFICE

Washington preferred to travel quietly, but the people, wishing to show their love and their trust, thronged to welcome him at every stage of the journey. When he passed through Philadelphia, under an escort of city troops, he rode a prancing white horse, and a crown of laurel rested upon his head.

But the most beautiful tribute of all was at Trenton. Over the bridge spanning a little creek which he had crossed more than once, thirteen years before, when he was battling for his country's freedom, was a floral arch. Under it stood a party of matrons and young girls strewing flowers in his path and singing a song of welcome.

When he arrived opposite New York on the west side of the North River, he was met by a committee of both houses of Congress, who escorted him to a handsomely equipped barge, manned by thirteen pilots, dressed in white uniforms. Landing on the New York side, he rode through the streets amid throngs of shouting people, while salutes thundered from war-ships and from cannon on the Battery, and bells rang joyfully from church steeples, all sounding a welcome.

The inauguration took place on April 30. A little after noon Washington went from his house under a large military escort to Federal Hall, then the Senate Chamber. On the

Washington Taking the Oath of Office as First President, at Federal Hall, New York City.

balcony which overlooked a throng of people in the streets below he took his place.

As he stood facing the chancellor of New York State, who was to give the oath, a deep hush fell on the multitude. "Do you solemnly swear," asked Chancellor Livingston, "that you will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of your ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States?"

"I do solemnly swear," said Washington, "that I will

faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States." Then he bent and kissed the Bible held before him, with the whispered prayer: "So help me God!"

"Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" exclaimed Livingston, and the excited throng took up the cry, shouting with wild enthusiasm. Thus was inaugurated our first President. Returning to the Senate Chamber, Washington there delivered a short address.

WASHINGTON SELECTS AN ABLE CABINET TO HELP HIM IN HIS WORK AS PRESIDENT

One of his first public acts was to choose men for a cabinet to help him in his new duties as President. Thomas Jefferson was made secretary of state; Alexander Hamilton, secretary of the treasury; Henry Knox, secretary of war; and Edmund Randolph, attorney-general. John Jay was appointed chief justice of the Supreme Court.

The new government had to settle more than one important question. One of these related to the method of paying the state debts which had resulted from the Revolutionary War. The Northern states were in favor of having the national government take care of these debts. Washington himself wished to unite in this way the interests of all the states as well as to have them feel that they had a share in the new government. The Southern states were

bitterly opposed to the plan, but they, in their turn, were eager to have the national capital located on the Potomac River.

Alexander Hamilton, by a clever arrangement, persuaded the opposing interests to adopt a compromise, or an agreement by which each side got a part of what it wished. The Northern states were to vote for a Southern capital if the Southern states would vote that the national government should look after the state debts.

This plan was carried out; and thus it was decided that the capital of the United States should be located in the District of Columbia, on the Potomac River, and should be called Washington, after George Washington. In 1789 the seat of government was in New York; from 1790 to 1800 it was in Philadelphia; and in 1800 it was transferred to Washington, where it has ever since remained.

WASHINGTON'S LIFE AS PRESIDENT IS ONE OF DIGNITY AND ELEGANCE

It was Washington's custom to pay no calls and accept no invitations, but between three and four o'clock on every Tuesday afternoon he held a public reception. On such occasions he appeared in court dress, with powdered hair, a long sword in a scabbard of white polished leather at his side, and a cocked hat under his arm. Standing before the fireplace, with his right hand behind him, he bowed formally as each guest was presented to him.

The visitors formed a circle about the room. At a quarter past three the door was closed, and Washington went around the circle, speaking to each person. Then he returned to his first position by the fireplace, where each visitor approached him, bowed, and retired.

HOW THE INVENTION OF THE COTTON-GIN BY ELI WHITNEY AFFECTS SLAVERY AND THE GROWING OF COTTON

One of the most noteworthy events which occurred during Washington's administration was the invention of the cotton-gin by Eli Whitney. He was born in Massachusetts. While yet a boy he was employed in making nails by hand, for there was no machine for making them in those days. Later, when he entered Yale College, his skilful use of tools helped him to pay his college expenses.

After being graduated from Yale he went South, where he became a tutor in the family of General Greene's widow, then living on the Savannah River.

One day, while Mrs. Greene was entertaining some planters, they began to talk about the raising of cotton. One of her guests said that it did not pay well because so much time was needed to separate the seeds from the fibre. He added that if a way could be found to do this more quickly the profits would be far greater.

"Gentlemen," said Mrs. Greene, "tell this to my young friend, Mr. Whitney. Verily, I believe he can make anything." As a result of this conversation, in two or three

months Eli Whitney had invented the cotton-gin (1793), although it was necessary for him to make all his own tools.

The cotton-gin brought about great changes. Before its invention it took a slave a whole day to separate the seed from five or six pounds of cotton fibre. But by the use of the cotton-gin he could separate the seed from a thousand pounds in a single day.

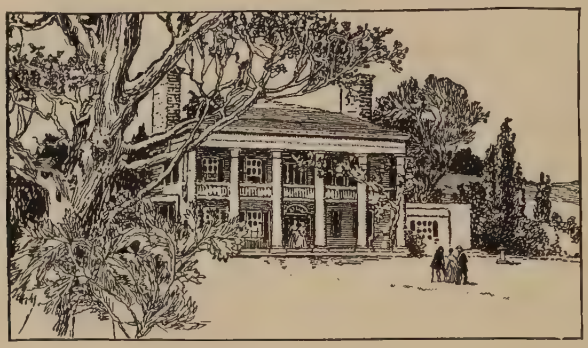
Whitney's Cotton-Gin.

This, of course, meant that cotton could be sold for very much less than before, and hence there arose a much greater demand for it. It meant, also, that the labor of slaves was of more value than before, and hence there was a greater demand for slaves.

SLAVERY NOW BECOMES AN IMPORTANT FEATURE OF SOUTHERN LIFE

Let us pause for a glimpse of a Southern plantation where slaves are at work. If we are to see such life under the pleasantest conditions, we will go to Virginia in the days before the Civil War. There the slaves led a freer and easier life than they did farther South among the rice-fields of South Carolina or the cotton-fields of Georgia.

We notice first the family mansion, a two-story house, often situated on a hilltop amid a grove of oaks. It is perhaps built of wood and painted white, with a porch in front covered with vines, and a wide hallway inside. It has a



A Planter's Home.

very comfortable look. Not far away is a group of small log cabins known as "the quarters," where the slaves live.

On the large plantations of the far South there were sometimes several slave settlements on one plantation, each being a little village, with the cabins set in rows on each side of a wide street. Each cabin housed two families, and belonging to each family was a small garden.

The log cabins contained large fireplaces, and it was not unusual for the master's children to gather about them when the weather was cold enough for fires, to hear the negroes tell quaint tales and sing weird songs. The old colored "mammies" were very fond of "Massa's chillun," and liked to pet them and tell them stories.

Sometimes the cooking for the master's family was done in the kitchen of the "big house," but more often in a cabin outside, from which a negro waitress carried the food to the dining-room. The slaves had regular allowances of food, most of them preferring to cook in their own cabins. Their common food was corn bread and ham or bacon.

"The Quarters" Where the Slaves Lived.

Some of the slaves were employed as servants in the master's house, but the greater part of them worked in the fields. They went out to work very early in the morning. It often happened that their breakfast and dinner were carried to them in the fields, and during their short rest they would often sing together.

The life of the slaves was sometimes hard and bitter,

especially when they were in charge of overseers on large plantations. But it was not always so; for when they had good masters, there were many things to cheer and brighten their lives. We know that household slaves often lived in the most friendly relations with their owners.

After serving with marked success for two terms, Washington again returned (1797) to private life at Mount Vernon. Here, on December 14, 1799, he died at the age of sixty-seven, loved and honored by the American people. By his noble life and unselfish devotion, our first President truly became the "Father of his Country." We cannot do better than follow the worthy example of his faithful and loyal service.

Some Things to Think About

1. In what respects was the country weak after the Revolution?
2. What are the three departments in our government?
3. Why should the people of the new republic desire Washington for their first president?
4. How did the people express their feeling for Washington when he was on his way to New York to be inaugurated as President?
5. Describe one of his public receptions.
6. Who were the men Washington chose to help him in his new duties as President?
7. Why was the present location of the capital of the United States chosen?
8. What effects did the invention of the cotton-gin have upon slavery?
9. In imagination visit some old plantations and tell what you can about slave life there.
10. Why has Washington been called the "Father of his Country"?

CHAPTER XX

THE SIZE OF THE NEW REPUBLIC IS GREATLY INCREASED THROUGH THE FORESIGHT OF JEFFERSON

ALREADY we have seen how through the achievements of early pioneers and settlers, such as Daniel Boone, in Kentucky, John Sevier and James Robertson, in Tennessee, and George Rogers Clark, in the region of the Great Lakes, the country lying between the Alleghany Mountains and the Mississippi River had come to be a part of the United States.

Thomas Jefferson.

Now we are to learn how in a very different and much easier way the vast area of land beyond the Mississippi, stretching westward to the Rocky Mountains and northward to Canada, became a part of the United States. All this territory we obtained not by exploration or settlement, but by purchase; and the man who had most to do with our getting it was Thomas Jefferson.

THE STORY OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE IS MOST INTERESTING, BUT HARDLY MORE SO THAN THE STORY OF JEFFERSON HIMSELF

Thomas Jefferson was born in 1743 near Charlottesville, Virginia, on a plantation of nearly 2,000 acres. As a boy he lived an out-of-door life, hunting, fishing, swimming, paddling his boat in the river near his home, and sometimes riding his father's horses. He was a skilful and daring rider, and remained to the end of his long life fond of a fine horse.

Thomas was a most promising lad. At five he entered school, and even at that early age began his lifelong habit of careful reading and study. While still a boy he was known among his playmates for his industry and his thorough way of working.

At seventeen he entered William and Mary College, at Williamsburg, Virginia. He worked hard, sometimes fifteen hours a day, yet he was no mere bookworm. Full of life and fun, he made many friends, among them Patrick Henry, who with his jokes and stories kept every one about him in good humor. In time the friendship between these two became so intimate that when Patrick Henry came to Williamsburg as a member of the House of Burgesses, he shared Jefferson's rooms. Both were fond of music, and spent many a pleasant hour playing their violins together.

We have a description of Jefferson as he appeared at this time. He was over six feet tall, but slender in body. His

freckled face was topped by a mass of sandy hair, and his keen gray eyes were most friendly. He stood erect, straight as an arrow, a fine picture of health and strong young manhood.

Thus he must have appeared as he stood in the doorway

"Monticello," the Home of Jefferson.

of the court-house, earnestly listening when Patrick Henry delivered his famous speech against the Stamp Act. The fiery words of his friend deeply impressed Jefferson's quick, warm nature.

Both young men were earnest patriots, but they served their country in different ways. Patrick Henry was the silver-tongued orator; while Jefferson, who was a poor

speaker, wrote with such grace and strength that he has rightly been called "The Pen of the Revolution."

Before he was a statesman he came into notice in other ways. He proposed our system of decimal currency, which replaced the clumsy one of pounds, shillings, and pence used in colonial days; and he invented an improved plough, which, by sinking deeper into the soil, vastly increased its productive power. It came into general use not only in our country but in the whole world. Still more important was his introduction into the United States of Italian rice seed, from which, as a beginning, some of the finest rice in the world is now produced in our own Southern states.

JEFFERSON'S GREATEST WORK IS THAT OF A STATESMAN

Valuable as these services were to his country, Jefferson's great work was as a statesman. He first came into prominence in the Second Continental Congress, when, you recall, the brave men representing the several colonies decided that the time had come for the American people to declare themselves free and independent of England. Here his ability as a writer came to the front; for of the committee of five appointed to draw up the Declaration of Independence he was a member, and it fell to him to write the first draft of that great state paper.

Congress spent a few days in going over the draft, making some slight changes, but in the main it stands as Jefferson wrote it.

After filling many of the high offices in the country, in 1801 Jefferson became the third President of the United States. In this lofty position history gives us another striking picture of the man. It shows that he was simple in his tastes, and that he liked best those plain ways of living which are most familiar to the common people.

On the day of his inauguration he went on foot to the Capitol, dressed in his every-day clothes and attended only by a few friends. It became his custom later, when going up to the Capitol on official business, to go on horseback, tying his horse with his own hands to a near-by fence. He declined to hold weekly receptions, as had been the custom when Washington and Adams were Presidents, but instead he opened his house to all on the Fourth of July and on New Year's Day. In these ways he was living up to his belief that the President should be simple in dress and manner.

HOW THE PURCHASE OF LOUISIANA COMES TO BE MADE

The act of Jefferson which stands out above all others as the greatest and wisest of his administration was the "Louisiana Purchase." When he became President, many pioneers were living along the Ohio and the streams flowing into it from the north and the south. These fertile lands yielded such abundant harvests that the prosperous settlements needed a market for their produce. The custom of loading pack-horses and driving cattle before them on the

long trail over the mountains to the East was no longer convenient.

Besides, water transportation cost much less. Such bulky products as corn meal, flour, pork, and lumber had to go on rafts or flatboats down the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers to New Orleans. Here the cargo and the boat were sold together, or the cargo sold and loaded on ocean vessels, which in time reached the Eastern market by a cheaper though longer route than that by land. Thus the Mississippi River, being the only outlet for this heavy produce, was very necessary to the prosperity of the West.

A Flatboat on the Ohio River.

But Spain at this time owned New Orleans and all the land about the mouth of the Mississippi; and as the river became more and more used for traffic, Spanish officers at New Orleans began to make trouble. They even threatened to prevent the sending of produce to that port.

This threat angered the Western farmers, who proposed wild plans to force an outlet for their trade. But before anything was done, news came that Napoleon, who was

then at the head of affairs in France, had compelled Spain to give up Louisiana to France.

Then the Westerners grew alarmed. It was bad enough to have a weak country like Spain in control of Louisiana. But it might be far worse to have France own it, for France at that time was the greatest military power in the world. All this was very plain to Jefferson, and he knew that Napoleon was planning to establish garrisons and colonies in Louisiana.

In view of possible dangers, he sent James Monroe to France to aid our minister there in securing New Orleans and a definite stretch of territory in Louisiana lying on the east side of the Mississippi River. If he could get that territory, the Americans would then own the entire east bank of the river, and could control their own trade.

When Monroe reached France, he found that Napoleon not only was willing to sell what Jefferson wanted, but wished him to buy much more. For as Napoleon was about to engage in war with England, he had great need of money. Besides, he was afraid that the English might even invade and capture Louisiana, and, in that case, he would get nothing for it. He was satisfied, therefore, to sell the whole of the Louisiana territory for $15,000,000, and Jefferson accepted the offer.

This purchase was a most important event in American history, for Louisiana at that time was a very large stretch of country. It included all the region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, from Canada down

to what is now Texas. Look at your map and notice that it was larger than all the rest of the territory which up to that time had been called the United States.

NEW ORLEANS IN 1803

The people of that day did not realize the importance of their purchase. For the most part the territory was a wild region, uninhabited except by scattered Indian tribes, and almost unexplored. The place most alive was New Orleans, which has been called a Franco-Spanish-American city, for it has belonged to all three nations in turn, and been under French control twice. You remember that the French settled it. Just suppose ourselves pioneers of 1803, who have brought a cargo down the river.

House in New Orleans Where Louis Philippe Stopped in 1798.

We find New Orleans to be one of the chief seaports of America. Shipping of all sorts—barges and flatboats, merchant vessels and war-ships—crowd the river and harbor.

There are buildings still standing which are unchanged parts of the earlier French town—for instance, the govern-

The United States in 1803, after the Louisiana Purchase.

ment house, the barracks, the hospital, and the Convent of the Ursulines. We notice that the walls and fortifications, built partly by the French and partly by the Spaniards, are but a mere ring of grass-grown ruins about the city.

The city is very picturesque with its tropical vegetation, always green, and its quaint houses, many of them raised several feet above the ground on pillars. The more pretentious mansions are surrounded by broad verandas and fine gardens, and scattered here and there among the houses of the better class are those of the poor people.

A Public Building in New Orleans Built in 1794.

The streets are straight and fairly wide, but dirty and ill kept. The sidewalks are of wood, and at night we need to take our steps carefully, for there are only a few dim lights. Beyond the walls of the city we see suburbs already springing up.

Besides New Orleans, a human oasis in the waste of forest, there were in 1803 a few French villages near the mouth of the Missouri River. Traders from the British

camps in the north had found their way as far south as these villages, but the great prairies had not been explored, and the Rocky Mountains were yet unknown.

LEWIS AND CLARK'S EXPEDITION TO THE NORTHWEST BRINGS KNOWLEDGE OF THE VAST EXTENT OF THE NEW TERRITORY

Before the purchase of Louisiana, Jefferson had planned an expedition to explore the region, and Congress had voted money for the plan. Two officers of the United States army, Captain Meriwether Lewis and Captain William Clark, brother of George Rogers Clark, were put in command of the expedition.

They were to ascend the Missouri River to its head and then find the nearest waterway to the Pacific coast. They were directed also to draw maps of the region and to report on the nature of the country and the people, plants, animals, and other matters of interest in the new lands.

In May, 1804, the little company of forty-five men started from St. Louis, and late in October they came to a village of the Mandan Indians at the great bend of the Missouri River, in what is now known as North Dakota. Deciding to winter here, they built huts and a stockade, calling the camp Fort Mandan.

When spring came the party, now numbering thirty-two, again took up their journey. All before them was new

country. They met few Indians, and found themselves in one of the finest hunting-grounds in the world.

Big game, such as buffalo, elk, antelope, whitetail and blacktail deer, and big-horned sheep, was abundant. It happened more than once that the party was detained for an hour or more while a great herd of buffalo ploughed their way down the bank of a river.

The Lewis and Clark Expedition Working Its Way Westward.

When the explorers arrived at the headwaters of the Missouri, the second autumn was almost upon them, and their hardest task was yet to be accomplished. Before them rose the mountains, and these, they knew, must be crossed before they could hope to find any waterway to the coast.

But they were fortunate in having with them a beautiful young Indian woman, who cheerfully rendered valuable service. In the language of her tribe—the Shoshones—she was called Sacajawea, a name which in our language means Bird Woman, and she was the wife of a French interpreter who had joined the exploring party at Fort Mandan. Although she carried on her back a little pappoose, she cheerfully joined the men at the tow-line and the oars as they slowly moved forward against the current of the muddy Missouri.

When the explorers left their boats, the Bird Woman faithfully guided them to the region where the Shoshones lived, and here they met her brother, who was one of the chiefs. The Indians proved friendly and supplied the white men with horses and guides to continue their journey.

Presently the way became most difficult. For nearly a month they struggled on through dense forests, over steep mountains, and across raging torrents, whose icy water chilled both man and beast. Sometimes storms of sleet and snow beat pitilessly down upon them, and again they were almost overcome by oppressive heat.

Game was so scarce that the men often went hungry, and were driven to kill some of their horses for food.

But brighter days were bound to come, and at last they reached a river which flowed toward the west. They called it Lewis, and it proved to be a branch of the Columbia, which led to the sea. With fresh courage they built five

canoes, in which the ragged, travel-worn men made their way down-stream. The Indians whom they met were for the most part friendly, welcoming them and providing them with food, though a few tribes were troublesome.

Before the cold of the second winter set in, they had reached the forests on the Pacific coast, where they stayed until spring, enduring much hunger and cold, but learning many things about the habits of the Indians. The next March, as soon as travel was safe, they gladly turned homeward.

In September, 1806, about two years and four months after starting out, they were back in St. Louis, with their precious maps and notes. They had successfully carried out a magnificent undertaking, and you may be sure they received a joyful welcome.

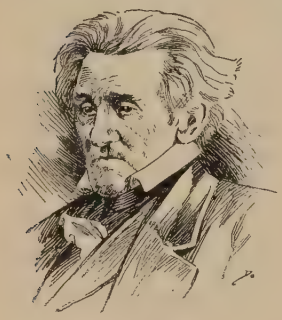
ANDREW JACKSON, A PICTURESQUE HERO, HELPS TO MAKE FLORIDA A PART OF THE UNITED STATES

The next addition made to our expanding nation was in the extreme southeast, and with it we connect the name of another of our Presidents, Andrew Jackson. We like to associate the story of how we came to have Florida with the career of the picturesque hero who brought about its purchase.

Andrew Jackson was born in Union County, North Carolina, in 1767, of poor Scotch-Irish parents who, about two years before, had come from Ireland. In a little clear-

ing in the woods they had built a rude log hut and settled down to hard work.

But Andrew's father soon died, and his mother went with her children to live in her brother's home, where she spun flax to earn money. She was very fond of Andrew and hoped some day to make a minister of him.



Andrew Jackson.

With this in view, she sent him to school, where he learned reading, writing, and a little ciphering. But little Andrew loved nature better than books, and did not make great progress with lessons. However, he was far from idle, and he did many hard and brave tasks worth being put into books for other boys to read.

"Mischievous Andy," as he was called, was a barefooted, freckle-faced, slender lad, with bright blue eyes and reddish hair, and was full of life and fun. Although not robust, he was wiry and energetic, and excelled in running, jumping, and all rough-and-tumble sports. If, in a wrestling match, a stronger boy threw him to the ground, he was so agile that he always managed to regain his feet.

When the Revolution broke out, there was severe fighting between the Americans and the British near Andrew's home, and when only thirteen he was made a prisoner of war.

One day, soon after his capture, a British officer gave him a pair of muddy boots to clean. The fiery youth flashed back: "Sir, I am not your slave. I am your prisoner, and as such I refuse to do the work of a slave." Angered by this reply, the brutal officer struck the boy a cruel blow with his sword, inflicting two severe wounds.

Andrew was kept in a prison-pen about the Camden jail. As he was without shelter and almost without food, the wounds refused to heal, and in his weak and half-starved condition he fell a victim to smallpox. His mother, hearing of her boy's wretched plight, secured his release and took him home. He was ill for months, and before he entirely recovered, his mother died, leaving him quite alone in the world.

JACKSON BECOMES A LAWYER AND PROSPEROUS LAND-OWNER IN TENNESSEE

In time the early hardships passed, and some years later we see Andrew, a young man of twenty-one, now become a lawyer. He is over six feet tall, slender, straight, and graceful, with a long, slim face, and thick hair falling over his forehead and shading his piercing blue eyes. He has crossed the mountains with an emigrant party into the backwoods region of Tennessee.

The party arrived at Nashville, where their life was very much like that of Daniel Boone, of Kentucky.

Young Jackson passed through many dangers without

harm, and by his industry and business ability became a successful lawyer, and in time a wealthy landowner.

After his marriage he built, on a plantation of 1,100

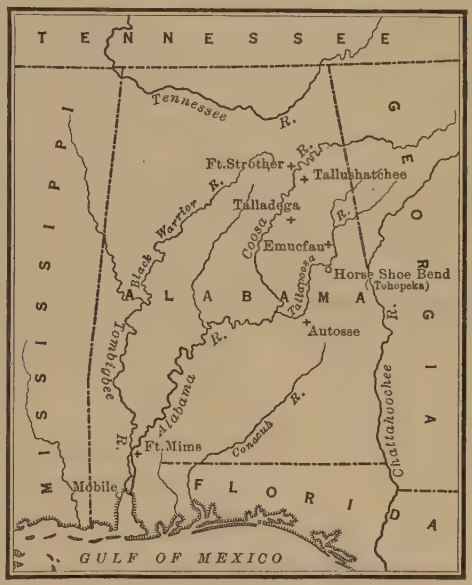
"The Hermitage," the Home of Andrew Jackson.

acres, about ten miles from Nashville, a house which he called "The Hermitage." Here he and his wife kept open house for visitors, treating rich and poor with like hospitality. His warm heart and generous nature were especially shown in his own household, where he was kind to all, including his slaves.

To the end of his life he had a childlike simplicity of

nature. But we must not think of him as a faultless man, for he was often rough in manner and speech, and his violent temper got him into serious troubles. Yet, with all his faults, he was brave and patriotic, and did splendid service as a fighter in Indian wars.

In 1817 General Jackson, as he was now called, was sent with a body of troops down to southern Georgia, to protect the people there from the Seminole Indians, who lived in Florida. Its vast swamps and dense forests made a place of refuge from which outlaws, runaway negroes, and Indians all made a practice of sallying forth in bands across the border into southern Georgia. There they would drive off cattle, burn houses, and murder men, women, and children without mercy.



Jackson's Campaign.

When Jackson pursued these thieves and murderers, they retreated to their hiding-places beyond the boundaries of Florida. But it was more than Jackson could endure to

see his enemy escape him so easily. And, although he was exceeding his orders, he followed them across the border, burned some of their villages, and hanged some of the Indian chiefs. He did not stop until he had all of Florida under his control.

This was a high-handed proceeding, for that territory belonged to Spain. Serious trouble was avoided only by our buying Florida (1819). This purchase added territory of 59,268 square miles to the United States. It was about 6,000 square miles less than the whole area of New England.

By studying your map you can easily see how much the area of the United States was extended by the purchase of Louisiana and of Florida. The adding of these two large territories made America one of the great nations of the world in landed estate.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell all you can about Jefferson's boyhood. What kind of student was he in college?
2. How did he help his countrymen before taking up his public life?
3. Why did the Westerners wish the Mississippi to be open to their trade?
4. Why was Napoleon willing to sell us the whole of Louisiana? Use your map in making clear to yourself just what the Louisiana Purchase included.
5. Why did Jefferson send Lewis and Clark on their famous expedition? What were the results of this expedition?
6. Imagine yourself with the explorers, and tell all you can about your experience on the long journey.
7. What kind of boy was Andrew Jackson? What kind of man?
8. What part did he take in the events leading up to the purchase of Florida?

CHAPTER XXI

INVENTORS AND INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS BRING GREAT CHANGES IN AMERICAN LIFE

After the purchase of Louisiana and the explorations of Lewis and Clark, the number of settlers who had been moving westward since the days of Boone, Robertson, and Sevier continued to increase.

When these pioneers went by land, they had to load their goods on pack-horses and follow the Indian trail. Later the trail was widened into a roadway, and wagons could be used. But travel by land was slow and hard under any conditions.

Going by water, while cheaper, was inconvenient, for the travellers must use the flatboat, which was clumsy and slow, and, worst of all, of little use except when going downstream.

The great need, both for travel and for trade, was a boat which would not be dependent upon wind or current, but could be propelled by steam. Many men had tried to work out such an invention. Among them was John Fitch, of Connecticut, who completed his first model of a steamboat in 1785. But he was not able to secure enough aid from men of capital and influence to make his boats permanently successful. Let us see how the first successful steamboat was put into operation by a young American.

EVEN AS A BOY, ROBERT FULTON SHOWS AN INVENTIVE GIFT

The first man to construct a steamboat which continued to give successful service was Robert Fulton. He was born of poor parents in Little Britain, Pennsylvania, in 1765, the year of the famous Stamp Act. When the boy was only three years old his father died, and Robert was brought up by his mother. She taught him at home until he was eight, and then sent him to school, where he showed an unusual liking for drawing.

Robert Fulton.

Outside of school hours his special delight was to visit the shops of mechanics, who humored the boy and let him work out his clever ideas with his own hands.

A story is told of how Robert came into school late one morning and gave as his excuse that he had been at a shop beating a piece of lead into a pencil. At the same time he took the pencil from his pocket, and showing it to his teacher, said: "It is the best one I have ever used." Upon carefully looking at it the schoolmaster was so well pleased that he praised Robert's efforts, and in a short time nearly all the pupils were using that kind of pencil.

Another example of Robert's inventive gift belongs to his boyhood days. He and one of his playmates from time

to time went fishing in a flatboat in which they pushed themselves along with poles. It was hard work, and slow, and presently Robert thought out an easier way. He made two crude paddle-wheels, attached one to each side of the boat, and connected them with a sort of double crank.

Fulton's First Experiment with Paddle-Wheels.

By turning this, the boys made the wheels revolve, and these moved the boat through the water easily.

FULTON'S LOVE FOR INVENTION LEADS HIM TO GIVE UP PAINTING TO EXPERIMENT ON DIVING-BOATS AND STEAMBOATS

While still young, Robert began to paint pictures also. At the age of twenty-one his interest in art led him to go to London, where he studied for several years under Benjamin West. This famous American master took young Fulton into his household and was very friendly to him.

After leaving West's studio, Fulton still remained in England, and although continuing to paint he gave much thought to the development of canal systems. His love for invention was getting the better of his love for art, and was leading him on to the work which made him famous. He was about thirty when he finally gave up painting to give all his time to inventing.

He went from England to Paris, where he lived in the family of Joel Barlow, an American poet and public man. Here he made successful experiments with a diving-boat, which he had designed to carry cases of gunpowder under water. This was a step in the development of our modern torpedo-boat, and, although this invention alone would have given Fulton a place in history, it was not so famous as the steamboat, with which his name is more often connected.

Fulton had long been interested in steam navigation, and while in Paris he constructed a steamboat. He was greatly aided by Robert R. Livingston, American minister at the French court, who had himself done some experimenting in that line, and was glad to supply Fulton with money for his boat.

It was finished by the spring of 1803. But just as they were getting it ready for a trial trip on the Seine, it broke in two parts and sank to the bottom of the river. The frame was too weak to support the weight of the heavy machinery.

FULTON BUILDS A SUCCESSFUL STEAMBOAT

Soon after Fulton's return to America, in 1806, he built another steamboat, which he called the Clermont. On the day set for the trial, in August, 1807, an expectant throng of curious observers gathered on the banks of the Hudson, at New York. Everybody was looking for failure, for though Fitch's boats had made trips on the Delaware about twenty years earlier, the fact did not seem to be generally known. People had all along spoken of Fulton as a half-crazy dreamer, and had called his boat "Fulton's Folly." "Of course the thing will not move," said one scoffer. "That any man with common sense well knows," another replied. And yet they all stood watching.

Fulton gave the signal, and the boat started. A slight tremor and it was still. "There! What did I say?" cried one. "I told you so!" exclaimed another. "I knew the boat would not go," said yet another. But they spoke too soon, for after a little delay the wheels of the Clermont began to revolve, slowly and hesitatingly at first, soon with more speed, and then the boat steamed proudly up the river.

As she moved forward, people who had come from far and near stood watching on the banks of the river. When boatmen and sailors on other river-boats heard the harsh clanking of machinery and saw the huge sparks and dense black smoke rising from her funnel, they took the Cler-

mont for a sea-monster. Some were so frightened that they went ashore, some jumped into the river to get away, and some fell on their knees in fear, believing their last day had

The Clermont in Duplicate at the Hudson-Fulton Celebration, 1909.

come. It is said that one old Dutchman exclaimed to his wife: "I have seen the devil coming up the river on a raft!"

The men who were working the boat had no such foolish fears. They set themselves to their task and made the trip from New York to Albany, a distance of 150 miles, in

thirty-two hours. Success had at last crowned the work of the quiet, modest inventor. After this trial trip the Clermont was used as a regular passenger-boat between New York and Albany.

The Clermont was only the beginning of steam-driven craft on the rivers and lakes of our country. Four years afterward (1811) the first steamboat west of the Alleghany Mountains began its route from Pittsburg down the Ohio, and a few years later similar craft were in use on the Great Lakes.

THE NATIONAL ROAD AND THE ERIE CANAL MAKE EASIER TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION WESTWARD

While steamboats made the river and lake routes easy for travel and traffic, journeys by land were still difficult. Good roads were needed, and the work of building them was taken up by the United States Government. The most important one was known as the National Road.

It ran from Cumberland, on the Potomac, through Maryland and Pennsylvania to Wheeling, on the Ohio. From there it was extended to Indiana and Illinois, ending at Vandalia, which at that time was the capital of Illinois. It was 700 miles long, and cost $7,000,000.

This smooth and solid roadway was eighty feet wide; it was paved with stone and covered with gravel. Transportation became not only much easier but also much

cheaper. The road filled a long-felt need, and a flood of travel and traffic immediately swept over it.

Another kind of highway which proved to be of untold value to both the East and the West was the canal, or artificial waterway connecting two bodies of water.

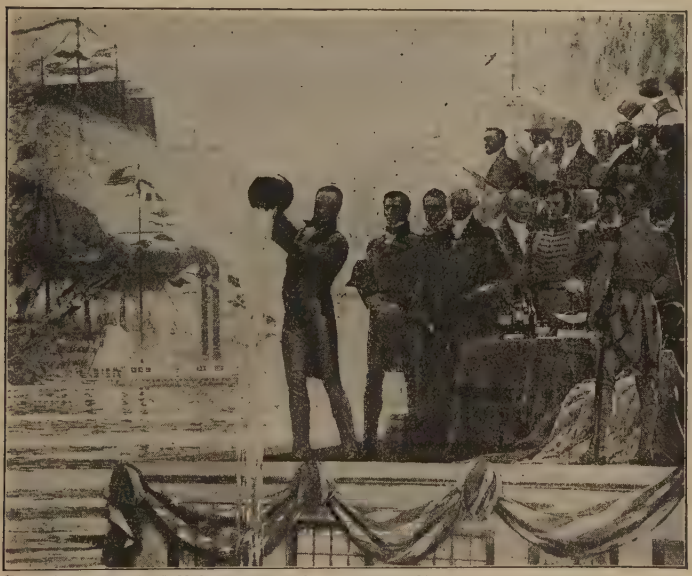
From the painting by C. Y. Turner in the De Witt Clinton High School, New York.

The Opening of the Erie Canal in 1825.

The first one of importance, the Erie Canal, connecting the Hudson River and Lake Erie, was begun in 1817. This new idea received the same scornful attention from the unthinking as "Fulton's Folly." By many it was called "Clinton's Ditch," after Governor De Witt Clinton, through whose foresight it was built.

The canal was finished in 1825, and was not only a great triumph for Clinton but it brought great wealth to the state.

Very soon its usefulness was made clear. Trade between the East and the West began to grow rapidly. Vast



From the painting by C. Y. Turner in the De Witt Clinton High School, New York.
The Ceremony Called "The Marriage of the Waters."

quantities of manufactured goods were moved easily from the East to the West, and large supplies of food were shipped in the opposite direction. Prices began to fall because the cost of carrying goods was so much less. Before the canal was dug, it cost ten dollars to carry a barrel of flour from Buffalo to Albany. For some years packets carrying pas-

sengers as well as freight were drawn through the canal by horses travelling the towpath along the bank.

The region through which the canal ran was at that time mostly wilderness, but when travelling was made so

Erie Canal, on the Right, and Aqueduct over the Mohawk River, New York.

easy and safe, the number of people moving westward grew larger rapidly. Land was in demand and rose in value. Farm products sold at higher prices. Villages sprang up, factories were built, and towns grew rapidly in size. The great cities of New York State—and this is especially true of New York City—owe much of their growth to the Erie Canal.

THE FIRST CRUDE PASSENGER-RAILROAD IS BUILT IN 1828

The steamboat, the national highways, and the canals were all great aids to men in travel and in carrying goods. The next great improvement in travel came about in the

use of the steam locomotive to transport people and goods overland.

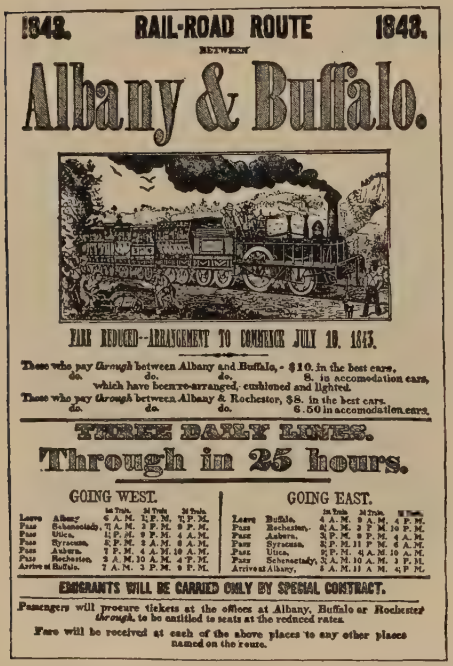
Our first passenger-railroad, begun in 1828, was the Baltimore and Ohio. The railroads of those early days would seem very strange now. The rails were of wood, covered with a thin strip of iron to protect the wood from wear—even as late as the Civil War rails of this kind were in use in some places—and the first cross-ties were of stone instead of wood. The locomotives and cars were also very crude.

"Tom Thumb," Peter Cooper's Locomotive Working Model, First Used Near Baltimore in 1830.

In 1833 people who came from the West to attend President Jackson's second inauguration travelled by the National Road as far as Frederick, Maryland, and from there by rail to Baltimore. Their train consisted of six cars, each accommodating sixteen persons, and it was drawn by horses.

In the autumn of that year a railroad was opened between New York and Philadelphia. At first horses were used to draw the train, but by the end of the year locomo-

tives, which ran at the rate of fifteen miles an hour, were introduced. This was a tremendous stride in the progress of railroad traffic.



1843. RAIL-ROAD ROUTE 1843.

BETWEEN

Albany & Buffalo.

FARE REDUCED--ARRANGEMENT TO COMMENCE JULY 10, 1843.

These who pay *through* between Albany and Buffalo, - $10. in the best cars,
do. do. do. 8. in accomodation cars,
which have been re-arranged, cushioned and lighted.
These who pay *through* between Albany & Rochester, $8. in the best cars.
do. do. do. 6.50 in accomodation cars.

THREE DAILY LINES.

Through in 25 hours.

GOING WEST.				GOING EAST.			
	1st Train.	2d Train.	3d Train.		1st Train.	2d Train.	3d Train.
Leave Albany	6 A. M.	1 P. M.	11 P. M.	Leave Buffalo,	4 A. M.	9 A. M.	4 P. M.
Pass Schenectady	9 A. M.	3 P. M.	8 P. M.	Pass Rochester,	8 A. M.	3 P. M.	10 P. M.
Pass Utica,	11 P. M.	5 P. M.	4 A. M.	Pass Auburn,	8 P. M.	8 P. M.	4 A. M.
Pass Syracuse,	8 P. M.	8 A. M.	6 A. M.	Pass Syracuse,	8 P. M.	11 P. M.	6 A. M.
Pass Auburn,	9 P. M.	4 A. M.	10 A. M.	Pass Utica,	8 P. M.	4 A. M.	10 A. M.
Pass Rochester,	2 A. M.	10 A. M.	4 P. M.	Pass Schenectady,	8 A. M.	10 A. M.	3 P. M.
Arrive at Buffalo.	7 A. M.	3 P. M.	9 P. M.	Arrive at Albany,	5 A. M.	11 A. M.	4 P. M.

EMIGRANTS WILL BE CARRIED ONLY BY SPECIAL CONTRACT.

Passengers will procure tickets at the offices at Albany, Buffalo or Rochester *through*, to be entitled to seats at the reduced rates.

Fare will be received at each of the above places to any other places named on the route.

From an Old Time Table (furnished by the "A B C Pathfinder Railway Guide")

Railroad Poster of 1843.

To be sure, the locomotives were small, but two or more started off together, each drawing its own little train of cars. Behind the locomotive was a car which was a mere platform with a row of benches, seating perhaps forty passengers, inside of an open railing. Then followed four or five cars looking very much like stage-coaches, each having three compartments, with doors on each side. The last car was a high, open-railed van, in which the baggage of the whole train was heaped up and covered with oilcloth. How strange a train of this kind would look beside one of our modern express-trains, with its huge engine, and its sleeping, dining, and parlor cars!

The railroads, once begun, grew rapidly in favor. They

enabled men to settle on lands far from the rivers, and they were a wonderful help in the rapid development of the West. In 1833 there were scarcely 380 miles of railroad in the United States; now there are more than 250,000 miles.

MORSE INVENTS THE TELEGRAPH AND MAKES NEWS COMMON TO ALL SECTIONS

The next stride of progress seemed even more wonderful. Having contrived an easier and a quicker way to move men and their belongings from one place to another, she now sent thought speeding around the world. The man whose inventive genius made it possible for men to flash their thoughts thousands of miles in a few seconds of time was Samuel Finley Breese Morse.

He was born in 1791 in Charlestown, Massachusetts. His father was a learned minister, who "was always thinking, always writing, always talking, always acting"; and his mother was a woman of noble character, who inspired her son with lofty purpose.

When he was seven he went to Andover, Massachusetts, to school, and still later entered Phillips Academy in the same town. At fourteen he entered Yale College, where from the first he was a good and faithful student.

As his father was poor, Finley had to help himself along, and was able to do it by painting, on ivory, likenesses of his classmates and professors, for which he received from

one dollar to five dollars each. In this way he made considerable money.

At the end of his college course he made painting his chosen profession, and went to London, where he studied four years under Benjamin West. Though for some years he divided his time and effort between painting and invention, he at last decided to devote himself wholly to invention. This change in his life-work was the outcome of an incident which took place on a second voyage home from Europe, where he had been spending another period in study.

HOW AN INCIDENT SETS MORSE TO THINKING OF A NEW WAY TO TRANSMIT THOUGHT

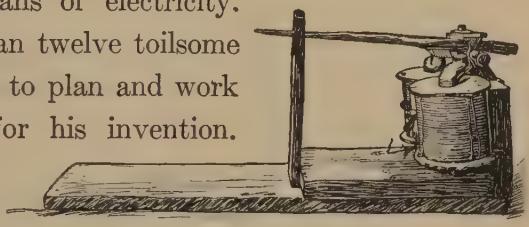
On the ocean steamer the conversation at dinner one day was about some experiments with electricity. One of the men present said that so far as had been learned from experiment, electricity passes through any length of wire in a second of time.

"Then," said Morse, "thought can be transmitted hundreds of miles in a moment by means of electricity; for, if electricity will go ten miles without stopping, I can make it go around the globe."

When once he began to think about this great possibility, the thought held him in its grip, shutting out all others. Through busy days and sleepless nights he turned it over and over. And often, while engaged in other duties,

he would snatch his note-book from his pocket in order to outline the new instrument he had in mind and jot down the signs he would use in sending messages.

It was not long before he had worked out on paper the whole scheme of transmitting thought over long distances by means of electricity.



The First Telegraph Instrument.

And now began twelve toilsome years of struggle to plan and work out machinery for his invention. All these years he had to earn money for the support of his three motherless children. So he gave up to painting much time that he would otherwise have spent upon his invention. His progress, therefore, was slow and painful, but he was not the kind of man to give up.

In a room on the fifth floor of a building in New York City he toiled at his experiments day and night, with little food, and that of the simplest kind. Indeed, so meagre was his fare, mainly crackers and tea, that he bought provisions at night in order to keep his friends from finding out how great his need was.

During this time of hardship all that kept starvation from his door was lessons in painting to a few pupils. On a certain occasion Morse said to one of them, who owed him for a few months' teaching: "Well, Strothers, my boy, how are we off for money?"

"Professor," said the young fellow, "I am sorry to say I have been disappointed, but I expect the money next week."

"Next week!" cried his needy teacher; "I shall be dead next week."

"Dead, sir?" was the shocked response of Strothers.

"Yes, dead by starvation!" was the emphatic answer.

"Would ten dollars be of any service?" asked the pupil, now seeing that the situation was serious.

"Ten dollars would save my life," was the quick reply of the man who had been without food for twenty-four hours. You may be sure that Strothers promptly handed him the money.

But in spite of heavy trials and many discouragements, he had, by 1837, finished a machine which he exhibited in New York, although he did not secure a patent until 1840.

MORSE WHEN ALMOST AT THE POINT OF DESPAIR RECEIVES AID TO BUILD A TELEGRAPH-LINE

Then followed a tedious effort to induce the government at Washington to vote money for his great enterprise. Finally, after much delay, the House of Representatives passed a bill "appropriating $30,000 for a trial of the telegraph."

As you may know, a bill cannot become a law unless the Senate also passes it. But the Senate did not seem friendly to this one. Many believed that the whole idea of the telegraph was rank folly. They thought of Morse

and the telegraph very much as people had thought of Fulton and the steamboat, and made fun of him as a crazy-brained fellow.

Up to the evening of the last day of the session the bill had not been taken up by the Senate. Morse sat anxiously

The Block System of the Modern Railroad is Controlled by the Telegraph.

waiting in the Senate Chamber until nearly midnight, when, believing there was no longer any hope, he left the room and went home with a heavy heart.

Imagine his surprise, the next morning, when a young woman, Miss Ellsworth, congratulated him at breakfast upon the passage of his bill. At first he could scarcely believe the good news, but when he found that she was

telling him the truth, his joy was unbounded, and he promised her that she should choose the first message.

By the next year (1844) a telegraph-line, extending from Baltimore to Washington, was ready for use. On the day appointed for trial Morse met a party of friends in the chambers of the Supreme Court at the Washington end of the line and, sitting at the instrument which he had himself placed for trial, the happy inventor sent the message selected by Miss Ellsworth: "What hath God wrought!"

The telegraph was a great and brilliant achievement, and brought to its inventor well-earned fame. Now that success had come, honors were showered upon him by many countries.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell all you can about John Fitch's steamboats.
2. Give examples which indicate young Fulton's inventive gifts. Imagine yourself on the banks of the Hudson River on the day set for the trial of the Clermont, and tell what happened.
3. What and where was the National Road?
4. In what ways was the Erie Canal useful to the people?
5. Describe the first railroads and the first trains.
6. Tell what you can about Morse's twelve toilsome years of struggle while he was working out his great invention. How is the telegraph useful to men?
7. What do you admire about Morse?
8. Are you making frequent use of your map?

CHAPTER XXII

LEADERS WHO HELP TO MAKE THE REPUBLIC LARGER

SAM HOUSTON BECOMES THE HERO IN THE LIBERATION OF TEXAS

In a preceding chapter you learned how we acquired the territories of Louisiana and Florida. You are now to learn how Texas and California came into our possession.

The most prominent man connected with the events which brought Texas into the Union was Sam Houston. He was born in Virginia, of Irish descent, in 1793. When he was thirteen his father died, and the family moved to a place in Tennessee, near the home of the Cherokee Indians. In that new country the boy received little schooling, but this did not make him unhappy, since he cared far less for school than he did for the active, free life of his Indian neighbors.

He made friends of them, and one of the chiefs adopted him as a son. We may be sure he enjoyed the sports, games, hunting, and fishing, which took up so much of the time of the Indian boys.

At the age of eighteen he went to school for a term at Maryville Academy. In 1813 he joined the army, serving under Andrew Jackson in the campaign against the Creek Indians. In the battle of Horseshoe Bend he fought with

reckless bravery, and received a wound in the thigh. Jackson then ordered him to stop fighting, but Houston refused to obey and was leading a desperate charge against the enemy when his right arm was shattered. It was a long time before he recovered from his wounds, but he had made a friend for all time in Andrew Jackson.

Later Houston studied law and began a successful practice in Tennessee. He was so well liked that he was elected to many positions of honor and trust, the last being that of governor. In 1829 he was married, but a few weeks later he separated from his wife without any explanation. His strange conduct brought upon him such a storm of disapproval that he left suddenly and went far up the Arkansas River to the home of his early friends, the Cherokee Indians, who had been removed by the United States Government to the distant lands beyond the Mississippi. Here he remained three years.

In 1832 he made a trip to Washington, wearing the garb of his adopted tribe. His stated purpose was to secure a contract for furnishing rations to the Cherokees. But another purpose was in his mind. He had set his heart on winning Texas for the United States. Perhaps he talked over the scheme with his friend President Jackson. However that may be, we know that in the same year Houston again left his Cherokee friends and went to Texas to live.

At that time Texas was a part of Mexico. Many people from the United States had begun to settle there, and

were welcomed by the Mexicans. But presently the Americans came in such rapidly growing numbers that the Mexican Government began to oppress them, and passed a law requiring them to give up their private arms. This would

Scene of Houston's Campaign.

leave them defenseless against the Indians as well as border ruffians. Another law provided that no more settlers should come to Texas from the United States, and that prevented the few thousand Americans from being strengthened in numbers.

The indignant settlers then rebelled against Mexico, declaring Texas to be an independent republic. At the same time they elected Houston commander-in-chief of all the Texan troops. This began a bitter war. The Mexican

dictator, Santa Anna, with an army 4,000 to 5,000 strong, marched into Texas to force the people to submit to the Mexican Government.

DAVID CROCKETT IS ONE OF THE BRAVE DEFENDERS OF THE ALAMO

The first important event of the war was the capture of the Alamo, an old Texan fortress at San Antonio. Although the garrison numbered only 140, they were men of reckless daring, without fear, and they determined to fight to the last.

Among these hardy fighters was David Crockett, a pioneer and adventurer who had led a wild, roving life. He was a famous hunter and marksman and, like some of our other frontiersmen, was never so much at home as when he was alone in the deep forests.

Born in eastern Tennessee, in 1786, he received no schooling, but he was a man of good understanding. His amusing stories and his skill with the rifle made him many friends, whom he represented in the Tennessee legislature, and later in Congress.

Like Sam Houston, he had served under Andrew Jackson in the war with the Creek Indians, and when the struggle with Mexico broke out he was one of the many brave backwoodsmen who left their homes and went down to help the Texans.

After a long journey from Tennessee, in which more

than once he came near being killed by the Indians or wild beasts, he at last reached the fortress of the Alamo. He knew he was taking great risks in joining the small garrison there, but that did not hold him back.

The Fight at the Alamo.

The Mexican army, upon reaching San Antonio, began firing upon the Alamo. Their cannon riddled the fort, making wide breaches in the weak outer walls through which from every side thousands of Mexicans thronged. After emptying their muskets, the Americans then fought with knives and revolvers. They kept up the fight with desperate bravery until only five of the soldiers were left.

One of these was David Crockett. He had turned his musket about and was using it as a club in his hopeless struggle with the scores of men who sought his life. There he stood, his back against the wall, with the bodies of the Mexicans he had slain lying in a semicircle about him.

His foes dared not rush upon him, but some of them held him at bay with their lances, while others, having loaded their muskets, riddled his body with bullets. Thus fell brave David Crockett, a martyr to his country's cause.

SAM HOUSTON DEFEATS THE MEXICANS AND PREPARES TEXAS FOR ANNEXATION TO THE UNITED STATES

A few weeks after the tragedy of the Alamo, Santa Anna's army massacred a force of 500 Texans at Goliad. The outlook for the Texan cause was now very dark, but Sam Houston, who commanded something like 700 Texans, would not give up the fight. He retreated eastward for some 250 miles, and when he learned that Santa Anna was approaching with only about 1,600 men, he halted his troops. Waiting for the Mexicans to come up, he stood ready for attack in a well-chosen spot near the San Jacinto River, and defeated the force, taking Santa Anna prisoner.

The Texans now organized a separate government, and in the following autumn elected Houston as the first president of the republic of Texas. Largely through his effort, Texas entered our Union in 1845. This action brought on the Mexican War, which lasted nearly two years.

JOHN C. FRÉMONT IS THE PATHFINDER THROUGH THE MOUNTAIN WEST

Still another man who acted as agent in the transfer of land from Mexico was John C. Frémont. His field was California.

His father died when he was a young child, and the family moved to Charleston, South Carolina. After graduating from Charleston College, Frémont was employed by the government as assistant engineer in making surveys for a railroad between Charleston and Cincinnati, and also in exploring the mountain passes between North Carolina and Tennessee.

He enjoyed this work so much that he was led to go farther west and explore that part of our country which was still largely unknown. He made several expeditions beyond the Rocky Mountains, three of which are of special importance to our story.

The first expedition was made in 1842, when he was sent out by the War Department to explore the Rocky Mountains. He made his way up the Kansas River, crossed over to the Platte, which he ascended, and then pushed on to the South Pass, which is in the State of Wyoming. After exploring it, he climbed with four of his men to the top of the mountain now known as Frémont's Peak, where he unfurled to the breeze the beautiful stars and stripes. The expedition had taken four months.

In this and also in his second expedition Frémont received much help from Kit Carson, one of the famous scouts and hunters of the West. Up to 1834 he was a trapper, and had roamed over the Rocky Mountain country until it had become very familiar to him. During the next eight years he was hunter for Bent's Fort, on the Arkansas River, and knew well the great plains.

He was also well acquainted with many Indian tribes. He knew their customs, he understood their methods of warfare, and they liked him. He spoke their chief languages as well as he did his mother tongue. He was therefore very useful to Frémont as a guide.

WITH KIT CARSON AS GUIDE, FRÉMONT CROSSES THE SIERRAS TO CALIFORNIA

After his first expedition in the Rocky Mountains, Frémont made up his mind to explore the region between them and the coast. Receiving orders from the government, he set out the second time in May, 1843, with thirty-nine men, Kit Carson again acting as guide.

The party left the little town of Kansas City in May, and, after travelling for 1,700 miles, in September they reached a vast expanse of water which excited great interest. It was much larger than the whole State of Delaware, and its waters were salt. It was therefore given the name of Great Salt Lake.

Passing on, Frémont reached the upper branches of the Columbia River and pushed down the valley as far as Fort Vancouver, near its mouth. Having reached the coast, he remained a few days and then set out on his return.

The route which he took extended from the lower part of the Columbia River to the upper part of the Colorado. It passed through a region of which almost nothing was known, and which was difficult for the explorers because

it was crossed by high and rugged mountain chains. They had not gone far before heavy snow on the mountains forced them to go down into the Great Basin, a deep valley lying east of the Sierra Nevada Mountains. Frémont soon found that he was in a wild desert region in the depths of winter, facing death from cold and starvation. The situation was desperate.

Frémont's Expedition Crossing the Rocky Mountains.

He judged that they were about as far south as San Francisco Bay. But to reach it they would have to cross the mountains, and the Indians refused to act as guides, saying that men could not possibly climb the steep, rugged heights in winter. Yet this warning did not stop Frémont.

It was a terrible journey. Sometimes they came to places where the snow was 100 feet deep or more, but

they went steadily forward for nearly six weeks. Finally, after suffering from intense cold and from lack of food, they found their way down the western side of the mountains, men and horses alike in such a starved condition that they were like walking skeletons.

At last they reached Sutter's Fort, now the city of Sacramento, where Captain Sutter made them comfortable. After remaining there for a short time, Frémont recrossed the mountains, 500 miles farther south, and continued to Utah Lake, which is 28 miles south of Great Salt Lake. He had travelled entirely around the Great Basin.

From Utah Lake he hastened across the country to Washington, with the account of his journey and of the discoveries he had made.

ON HIS THIRD EXPEDITION FRÉMONT AIDS IN THE CONQUEST OF CALIFORNIA FOR THE UNITED STATES

In 1845 Captain Frémont—for he had now been promoted to the rank of captain—started out on his third expedition to explore the Great Basin, and then to proceed westward to the coast and north to Oregon.

Having explored the basin, he was on his way to Oregon when he learned that the Mexicans were plotting to kill all the Americans in the valley of the Sacramento River. He therefore turned back, and, with the help of American settlers in northern California, he took possession of that region, which was then Mexican territory, and marching

south captured Monterey. Within about two months he had conquered practically all of California, including what had been settled by Spanish missionaries.

Frémont's conquest was, in effect, a part of the Mexican War, which began in 1846. After nearly two years of fighting, a treaty of peace was signed, by which Mexico ceded to the United States not only California but also much of the vast region now included in Nevada, Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico.

This region, which is called the Mexican Cession, contained 545,783 square miles, while Texas included 576,133 square miles. These two areas together were, like Louisiana, much larger than the whole of the United States at the end of the Revolution. With the addition of Louisiana in 1803, of Florida in 1819, of Texas in 1845, and of this region in 1848, the United States had enormously increased her territory.

THE AMERICANS MAKE SETTLEMENTS IN OREGON

Many years before the Mexican War, while California was still a part of Mexico, the United States claimed the land lying west of the Rocky Mountains between the northern boundary of California and the southern boundary of Alaska, or the latitude of 54° 40′. It was called the Oregon country. England claimed the same region as far south as the Columbia River, or the latitude of 46°. Since neither the United States nor England was willing to give up her

claim, or even a part of it, in 1818 they agreed to occupy the country together.

This, of course, did not end the dispute; it only put off the settlement. But the chances were in our favor because we were close to the region, and trappers and fur-traders soon entered it after it had been explored in 1806. Missionaries followed the trappers and traders, and while working to make Christians of the Indians, they also farmed the land.

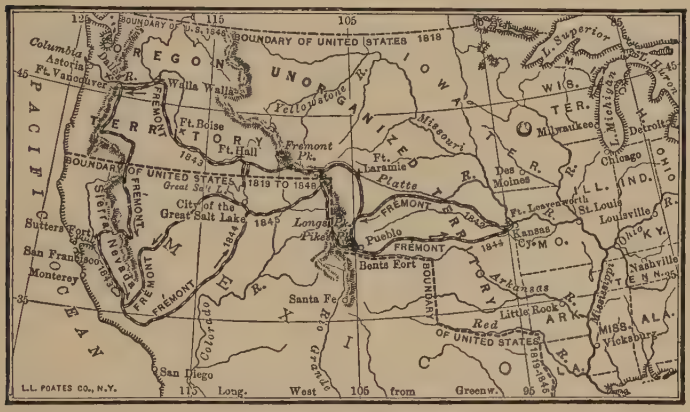
Although American settlement began as early as 1832, no large settlement was made before 1843, the year of the great migration.

The starting-place was Independence, Missouri, a village a few miles west of the present site of Kansas City. It was the regular outfitting place for trappers, traders, and emigrants. Those who took the long journey to the Far West united here to form a caravan for better defense against the Indians.

By the middle of May, 1843, emigrants began to arrive from all directions, in parties of two, three, a dozen, or even twenty, in huge wagons covered with white canvas and known as prairie-schooners. Before leaving they adopted rules for the journey, and chose a "pilot" to guide them over the mountains. On May 22 the large caravan started. After crossing the Kansas River they were joined by others who brought the whole number up to 1,000, including men, women, and children. There were also 120 wagons and over 5,000 cattle.

The company was divided into two parts, each with sixty wagons. One was made up of those who owned only a few cattle or none, and was called "the light column"; the other of those having large or small herds, and known as "the cow-column."

An able "pilot" conducted the first division. Captain



Frémont's Western Explorations.

Jesse Applegate was the leader of the second division. He was not only active and efficient on the journey, but took a large part in the affairs of Oregon after it was settled. The pioneers looked to him for wise counsel, and their descendants still recall his noble deeds.

Years after the great migration had taken place, Captain Applegate wrote a vivid account of a typical day on the journey—so vivid, indeed, that you can easily imagine yourself one of the pioneer travellers.

At four o'clock in the morning the firing of guns by the sentinels is the signal for all to rise and make ready for the day's journey. Between six and seven the work is well advanced. Fires are lighted; breakfast is cooked and eaten; oxen, cows, and horses are driven in from where they have been grazing during the night; and the teams of oxen are attached to the wagons.

At seven o'clock a trumpet in front sounds the signal to start. At once all fall into their proper places, and the long line "draws its lazy length" toward the distant goal. The wagons are loaded with women, children, and household goods; some of the men, armed with guns and pistols, ride alongside to guard against unfriendly Indians; others drive the cattle that follow in the rear of the caravan; another small group, mounted and armed, stand apart, for they are about to start on a buffalo-hunt. Each man serves in turn as hunter and scout, and each in turn serves as sentinel during the night.

After stopping an hour at noon for rest and food the line of march is again taken up and continues till sunset. Then the wagons are driven into a circle, the oxen released, and the wagons connected with the ox-chains, making a fort-like defense for the night. The rear of each wagon closes on the front of the one behind it so that there is no unfilled space between any two of them.

At the end of ninety-eight days the emigrants arrived at Fort Hall, which was a well-known way-station along the

Oregon trail. They had covered only two-thirds of the long journey, and the hardships to be faced were worse than those they had already endured. Thus far they had come over a wagon-trail; but from Fort Hall to the Willamette valley, where they were to make their homes, there was only a pack-trail, and they could not obtain enough pack-horses.

By good fortune, however, they had in their company Doctor Marcus Whitman, a representative of the American Board of Missions of the Congregational Church. He was in charge of the Walla Walla Mission, and, seven years before, had gone over a part of the pack-trail in a light wagon. He urged them to risk the venture, and offered to be their guide. They fell in with his plans, and before the beginning of December, or more than six months after starting from Independence, the company reached the Willamette valley in safety.

Next year (1844) 2,000 more emigrants went out; and by 1845 the American settlers in the Oregon country numbered 7,000. By right of occupation the United States now laid claim to the country, and in 1846 a treaty with England was arranged. By its terms the boundary separating the two claims was made 49°. The whole Oregon country included what is now the states of Oregon, Idaho, and Washington, or an area equal to fifty states the size of Connecticut.

THE RUSH OF GOLD-MINERS TO CALIFORNIA LEADS TO THE FORMATION OF A STATE ON THE PACIFIC COAST

Two years after the treaty with England fixing our northern boundary, the treaty with Mexico, as you have already learned, gave us the whole of California. In that same year another event combined to make this region a most popular centre of settlement. This was the discovery of gold in California.

Captain Sutter, a Swiss pioneer living near the site of the present city of Sacramento—at Sutter's Fort, where Frémont stopped on his second expedition—was having a water-power sawmill built up the river at some distance from his home. One of the workmen, while walking along the mill-race, discovered some bright, yellow particles, the largest of which were about the size of grains of wheat. On testing them, Captain Sutter found that they were gold.

He tried to keep the discovery a secret, but it was impossible. The news spread rapidly to all the neighboring country, and men made a rush for the gold-fields. From the mountains to the coast, from San Francisco to Los Angeles, settlements were abandoned. Even vessels that came into the harbor of San Francisco were deserted by their crews, sailors and captains alike being drawn by their desire for gold. "To the diggings!" was the watchword.

Within four months of the first discovery 4,000 men were living in the neighborhood of Sacramento. The sudden

coming together of so many people made it difficult to get supplies, and they rose in value. Pickaxes, crowbars, and spades cost from ten dollars to fifty dollars apiece. Bowls, trays, dishes, and even warming-pans were eagerly sought, because they could be used in washing gold.

It was late in the year before people in the East learned

Sutter's Mill.

of the discovery, for news still travelled slowly. But when it arrived, men of every class—farmers, mechanics, lawyers, doctors, and even ministers—started West. The journey might be made in three ways. One was by sailing-vessels around Cape Horn. Another way was to sail by way of the Isthmus of Panama. The third route was overland, from what is now St. Joseph, Missouri, and required three or four months. This could not be taken until spring,

and some who were unwilling to wait started at once by the water-routes.

Men were so eager to go that when spring came several often joined together to buy an outfit of oxen, mules, wagons,

Placer-Mining in the Days of the California Gold Rush.

and provisions. They made the journey in covered wagons called "prairie-schooners," while their goods followed in peddlers' carts. It often happened that out on the plains they missed their way, for there was no travelled road, and a compass was as necessary as if they had been on the ocean.

Journeying thus by day, and camping by night, they suffered many hardships while on the way. Four thousand died from cholera during the first year, and many more for lack of suitable food. In some cases they had to kill and

eat their mules, and at times they lived on rattlesnakes. The scattered bones of men and beasts marked the trail; for in the frantic desire to reach the diggings the wayfarers would not always stop to bury their dead.

When the gold region was reached, tents, wigwams, bark huts, and brush arbors served as shelter. The men did their own cooking, washing, and mending, and food soared to famine prices. A woman or a child was a rare sight in all that eager throng, for men in their haste had left their families behind.

It was a time of great excitement. Perhaps you have a grandparent who can tell you something of those stirring days. The gold craze of '49 is a never-to-be-forgotten event in our history. Although many were disappointed in not finding gold, they found a great new country, beautiful to live in and rich in possibilities, which became the new State of California.

Some Things to Think About

1. What kind of boy was Houston? What kind of man? What did he do for Texas?
2. Tell about David Crockett's heroism at the Alamo.
3. When reading about Frémont's explorations look up on the map every one of them. What do you think of him?
4. Who was Kit Carson, and how did he help Frémont?
5. Imagine yourself with Captain Applegate's division, and tell about your experience.
6. Locate on your map every acquisition of territory from the end of the Revolution to 1848.
7. Imagine yourself going to California across the plains and mountains in 1849, and give an account of your experiences.

CHAPTER XXIII

HOW THREE GREAT STATESMEN STRIVE TO SETTLE THE PROBLEMS OF THEIR TIME

JOHN C. CALHOUN IS THE SOUTHERN LEADER

The territory we obtained from Mexico, while adding much to the expanse of our country, led to a bitter dispute between the North and the South over slavery.

The trouble over slavery was no new thing. It had begun to be really serious many years before the Mexican War, and a year or two afterward there was deep and violent feeling over the question of whether the new territory should be free or open to slavery. To understand why this was so, we must go back to earlier events and follow the careers of three great statesmen, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, and Daniel Webster, each of whom took an important part in the shaping of them.

John C. Calhoun, born in South Carolina in 1782, was the youngest but one of a family of five children. His father died when he was only thirteen, and until he was eighteen he remained on the farm, living a simple out-of-door life, working in the field, hunting, riding, and fishing.

Then upon advice of his elder brother, who had observed John's quickness of mind, he went to an academy. After studying two years and a quarter, he entered the junior class at Yale College, graduating in 1804, and took a course in the law school at Litchfield, Connecticut. Then he returned home to complete his studies for the bar.

He was always steady and serious-minded, and during the early years of his public life he won much praise for his close attention to work, his stately speeches, and his courteous manners. Slender and erect in form, his dignified bearing, piercing dark eyes, and powerful voice were sure to command attention.

John C. Calhoun.

In 1808 he entered the South Carolina legislature, and began a public career which was to last more than forty years. During this time he served his country as a representative in Congress, secretary of war, vice-president of the United States, secretary of state, and United States senator.

From the first he was prominent as a leader, especially in those events which concerned the slaveholding Southern planter. This we shall see later, after we have made the acquaintance of the second of the powerful trio of great statesmen, Henry Clay.

HENRY CLAY BECOMES THE GREAT PEACEMAKER BETWEEN THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH

Henry Clay was born near Richmond, Virginia, in 1777, in a low, level region called "the Slashes." He was one of seven children. His father was a Baptist preacher, very pleasing in voice and manner. He died when Henry was four years old, leaving little laid aside for his family.

Henry Clay.

Like the other boys of "the Slashes," Henry went to school in a small log schoolhouse without windows or floor. The schoolmaster, who had not much education himself, taught the boys to read, write, and cipher. But that was all.

Outside of school hours Henry shared in the farm work. He helped with the field work and often rode the family pony to the mill, sitting on a bag of grain or flour and using a rope for a bridle. For this reason he has been called "the Millboy of the Slashes."

When fourteen years old he took a place as clerk in a Richmond drug-store. But he did not stay long, for about this time his mother married again, and his stepfather, realizing that Henry was a boy of unusual ability, found him

a place as copying clerk in the office of the court of chancery at Richmond.

At this time he was fifteen years old, tall, thin, and homely. The other clerks were inclined to jeer at his awkwardness and his plain, home-made, ill-fitting clothes. But Henry's sharp retorts quickly silenced them, and they soon grew to respect and like him. He was an earnest student, and spent his evenings reading, while the other young fellows idled about the town.

The Birthplace of Henry Clay, near Richmond.

He joined the Richmond Debating Society and soon became the "star" speaker. This came by hard work, for he formed the habit of studying daily some selected passage, and then going out to a quiet place and declaiming what he had learned.

He attracted the notice of the chancellor, who was pleased by Henry's painstaking work at the office and by his studious habits. He advised Henry to read law, and within a year after his studies began, when he was only twenty-one years old, he was admitted to the bar.

He began his law practice in Lexington, Kentucky, then

a small place of not more than fifty houses. Although he arrived with scarcely a penny, he was so successful that within a year and a half he was able to marry the daughter of a leading family. And very soon he became the owner of a beautiful estate near Lexington, called "Ashland," and also of several slaves.

He was a great favorite with the people largely because he was so honest in his dealings and so friendly to all. It is said that no other man has ever had such power to influence a Kentucky jury.

Such was the beginning of his life as a statesman. During a period of some forty years he was prominent as a leader in all the great events that were making the history of our country.

He filled various national offices. He was speaker of the House of Representatives for many years, was four years secretary of state, and during much more than half of the time between 1831 and 1852 he was in the United States Senate. Three times he was a candidate for President, but each time he failed of election.

He would not swerve by a hair's breadth from what he considered his duty, even for party ends. "I would rather be right than be President," he said, and men knew that he was sincere.

Living in a Southern state, he would naturally have the interests of the South at heart. But he did not always take her part. While Calhoun was apt to see but one side

of a question, Clay was inclined to see something of both sides, and to present his views in such a way as to bring about a settlement. Therefore he was called "the Great Peacemaker."

His most important work as a peacemaker had to do with the Missouri Compromise (1820), the compromise tariff (1833), and the Compromise of 1850, sometimes called the Omnibus Bill. All of these we look into a little further on, after we come to know something about the last, and perhaps the greatest, of our three statesmen, Daniel Webster. For all three were interested in the same great movements.

DANIEL WEBSTER IS THE LEADING STATESMAN IN THE NORTH

Daniel Webster was born among the hills of New Hampshire, in 1782, the son of a poor farmer, and the ninth of ten children. As he was a frail child, not able to work much on the farm, his parents permitted him to spend much of his time fishing, hunting, and roaming at will over the hills. Thus he came into close touch with nature and absorbed a kind of knowledge which was very useful to him in later years.

He was always learning things, sometimes in most unusual ways, as is shown by an incident which took place when he was only eight years old. Having seen in a store near his home a small cotton handkerchief with the Constitution of the United States printed upon it, he gathered

up his small earnings to the amount of twenty-five cents and eagerly secured the treasure. From this unusual copy he learned the Constitution, word for word, so that he could repeat it from beginning to end.

Of course this was a most remarkable thing for an eight-year-old boy to do, but the boy was himself remarkable. He spent much of his time poring over books. They were few in number but of good quality, and he read them over and over again until they became a part of himself. It gave him keen pleasure to memorize fine poems and also noble selections from the Bible, for he learned easily and remembered well what he learned. In this way he stored his mind with the highest kind of truth.

When he was fourteen his father sent him to Phillips Exeter Academy. The boys he met there were mostly from homes of wealth and culture. Some of them were rude and laughed at Daniel's plain dress and country manners. Of course the poor boy, whose health was not robust, and who was by nature shy and independent, found such treatment hard to bear. But he studied well and soon commanded respect because of his good work.

After leaving this school he studied for six months under a private tutor, and at the age of fifteen he was prepared to enter Dartmouth College. Although he proved himself to be a youth of unusual mental power, he did not take high rank in scholarship. But he continued to read widely and thoughtfully, and stored up much valuable knowledge,

which later he used with clearness and force in conversation and debate.

After being graduated from college Daniel taught for a year and earned money enough to help pay his brother's college expenses. The following year he studied law, and in due time was admitted to the bar. As a lawyer he was

The Home of Daniel Webster, Marshfield, Mass.

very successful, his income sometimes amounting to $20,000 a year. In those days that was a very large sum.

But he could not manage his money affairs well, and no matter how large his income, he was always in debt. This unfortunate state of affairs was owing to a reckless extravagance, which he displayed in many ways.

Indeed, Webster was a man of such large ideas that of necessity he did all things on a large scale. It was vastness that appealed to him. And this ruling force in his nature explains his eagerness to keep the Union whole and supreme over the states. This we shall soon clearly see.

ALL THREE LEADERS PLAY IMPORTANT PARTS IN THE DISPUTES OVER SLAVERY AND THE TARIFF

Having taken this glimpse of our three leaders, let us see how the great events of their time were largely moulded by their influence. All of these events, as we are soon to learn, had a direct bearing on slavery, and that was the great question of the day.

Up to the Revolution there was slavery in all the thirteen colonies. Some of them wished to get rid of it; but England, the mother country, would not allow them to do so, because she profited by the trade in slaves. After the Revolution, when the states were free to do as they pleased about slavery, some put an end to it on their own soil, and in time Pennsylvania and the states to the north and east became free states.

Many people then believed that slavery would by degrees die out, and perhaps this would have happened if the growing of cotton had not been made profitable by Eli Whitney's invention of the cotton-gin. But after that it took a much stronger hold upon the planters of the South than ever before.

This became very evident when Missouri applied for admission into the Union. The South, of course, wished it to come into the Union as a slave state; the North, fearing the extension of slavery into the Louisiana Purchase was equally set upon its coming in as a free state.

The struggle was a long and bitter one, but finally both

the North and the South agreed to give up a part of what they wanted; that is, they agreed upon a compromise. It was this: Missouri was to enter the Union as a slave state, but slavery was not to be allowed in any part of the Louisiana Purchase which lay north or west of Missouri. This was called the Missouri Compromise (1820).

It was brought about largely through the eloquence and power of Henry Clay, and it was at this time he earned the name of "the Great Peacemaker." Calhoun, on the other hand, was one of the men who did not think the Missouri Compromise was a good thing for the country. He therefore strongly opposed it.

The next clash between the free states and the slave states was caused by the question of the tariff, or tax upon goods brought from foreign countries. Not long after the Missouri Compromise was agreed upon, Northern manufacturers were urging Congress to pass a high-tariff law. They said that, inasmuch as factory labor in England was so much cheaper than in this country, English goods could be sold for less money here than those made in our own factories, unless a law was passed requiring a tax, or duty, to be paid upon the goods brought over. Such a tax was called a protective tariff.

Calhoun, who voiced the feeling of the Southern planters, said: "This high tariff is unfair, for, while it protects the Northern man, it makes us of the South poorer, because we have to pay so high for the things we do not make."

You understand, there were no factories in the South, for the people were mostly planters. With the cheap slave labor, a Southern man could make more money by raising rice, cotton, sugar, or tobacco than he could by manufacturing. Also, it was thought that the soil and climate of the South made that section better fitted for agriculture than for anything else. "So the South should be allowed," said Calhoun, "to buy the manufactured goods—such as cheap clothing for her slaves, and household tools and farming implements—where she can buy them at the lowest prices."

But in spite of this bitter opposition in the South, Congress passed the high-tariff law in 1828, and another in 1832. The people of South Carolina were indignant. And, under the guidance of Calhoun, some of the leading men met in convention and declared: "We here and now nullify the tariff laws." By these words they meant that the laws should not be carried out in South Carolina. Then they added: "If the United States Government tries to enforce these laws on our soil, South Carolina will go out of the Union and form a separate nation."

Andrew Jackson was at that time President of the United States. Although he himself did not favor a high tariff, he was firm in his purpose that whatever law Congress might pass should be enforced in every state in the Union. When the news came to him of what South Carolina had done, he was quietly smoking, but in a flash of anger he declared: "The Union! It must and shall be

preserved! Send for General Scott!" General Scott was commander of the United States army, and "Old Hickory," as President Jackson was proudly called by many of his admirers, was ready to use the army and the navy, if necessary, to force any state to obey the law.

In this bitter controversy Daniel Webster, then senator from Massachusetts, had taken a bold stand for the Union. He said: "Congress passed the tariff law for the whole country. If the Supreme Court decides that Congress has the power, according to the Constitution, to pass such a law, that settles the matter. South Carolina and every other state must submit to this and every other law which Congress sees fit to make."

This shows clearly that Daniel Webster's belief was that the Union stood first and the state second. His deep love for the Union breathes all through his masterly speeches, the most famous of which is his "Reply to Hayne." Hayne, a senator from South Carolina, was on the side of the South, and set forth its views in a public debate. He had declared that the state was first and the Union second, and so powerful seemed his arguments that many doubted whether even Daniel Webster could answer them.

But he did answer them. In a remarkable speech of four hours he held his listeners spellbound, while he argued, with wonderful eloquence and power, that the Union was supreme over the states.

Again the great peacemaker, Henry Clay, brought for-

ward a plan of settling the trouble between the two sections. By this compromise the duties were to be gradually lowered. This plan was adopted by Congress (1833), and again there was peace for a time.

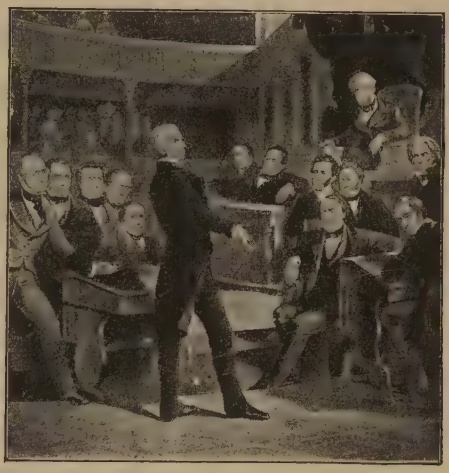
THE LAST DAYS OF THE THREE GREAT STATESMEN COME ABOUT THE TIME OF THE FUTILE COMPROMISE OF 1850

The next dangerous outbreak between the North and the South came at the end of the Mexican War. Then arose the burning question: "Shall the territory we have acquired from Mexico be free or open to slavery?" Of course the North wanted it to be free; the South wanted it to be open to slavery.

Henry Clay tried again, as he had tried twice before—in 1820 and in 1833—to pour oil upon the troubled waters. Although he was now an old man of seventy-two and in poor health, he spoke seventy times in his powerful, persuasive way to bring about the Compromise of 1850, which he hoped would establish harmony between the North and the South and save the Union.

On one occasion when he was to speak he had to enter the Capitol leaning upon the arm of a friend, because he was too weak to climb the steps alone. After entering the Senate Chamber that day, the great speech he made was so long that his friends, fearing fatal results, urged him to stop. But he refused. Later he said that he did not dare to stop for fear he should never be able to begin again.

Calhoun was no less ready to do all he could. Early in March, 1850, the white-haired man, now in his sixty-eighth year and, like Clay, struggling with illness, went to the Senate Chamber, swathed in flannels, to make his last appeal in behalf of the slaveholders. The powerful speech he made, which was intended as a warning to the North, expressed the deep and sincere conviction of the aged statesman that the break-up of the Union was at hand. He made a strong plea that the agitation against slavery should stop, and that the South, which, he said, was the weaker section, should be treated fairly by her stronger antagonist, the North.



Henry Clay Addressing the United States Senate in 1850.

Having made this last supreme effort in defense of the section which he loved as he loved his own life, the pro-slavery veteran, supported by two of his friends, passed out of the Senate Chamber.

But, in spite of Calhoun's opposition, the Compromise of 1850 passed. "Let California come in as a free state," it said. This pleased the North. "Let the people in all the

rest of the territory which we got from Mexico decide for themselves whether they shall have slavery or freedom." This pleased the South. It also adopted the Fugitive Slave Law, which said: "When slaves run away from the South into the Northern states, they shall be returned to their masters; and when Northern people are called upon to help to capture them, they shall do so."

A month after his speech on this compromise Calhoun died. The last twenty years of his life had been largely devoted to trying to secure what he regarded as the rights of the slaveholders and of the whole South. He was honest in his views. He was also sincere in his convictions that the South was not receiving fair treatment from the North.

Henry Clay died in 1852. Some of the qualities that gave him his rare power over men were his magical voice, which was so deep and melodious that many people of his time said it was the finest musical instrument they had ever heard; his cheerful nature, which made him keenly enjoy life and delight to see others enjoy it; and above all else his never-swerving sincerity and honesty, which commanded the respect and confidence of all who knew him. Men believed that Henry Clay was a true man. His popularity grew in strength as he grew in years. His many followers proudly called him "Gallant Harry of the West."

Webster's power as an orator was still more remarkable. His voice was wonderful, his style was forceful, and his language was simple and direct. But, after all, it was

his striking personal appearance which made the deepest impression upon the men and women who heard him speak. It is told that one day when he was walking through a street of Liverpool, a navvy said of him: "That must be a king!" On another occasion Sydney Smith exclaimed: "Good

From the painting by Hale, in Faneuil Hall.

Daniel Webster Making His Remarkable Speech.

heavens, he is a small cathedral by himself!" He was nearly six feet tall. He had a massive head, a broad, deep brow, and great, coal-black eyes, which once seen could never be forgotten.

He, too, was faithful in his devotion to his country. To the day of his death he showed his deep affection for the flag, the emblem of that Union which had inspired his noblest efforts. During the last two weeks of his life he was troubled much with sleeplessness. While through his

open window he gazed at the starlit sky, his eyes would sometimes fall upon a small boat belonging to him, which floated near the shore not far away. By his direction a ship-lantern had been so placed that its light would fall upon the stars and stripes flying there. At six in the evening the flag was raised and was kept flying until six in the morning up to the day of Webster's death.

He died in September, 1852, only a few weeks after his great compeer, Henry Clay. His was a master spirit, and the sorrow of his passing was well expressed by the stranger who said, when he looked at the face of the dead: "Daniel Webster, the world without you will be lonesome."

Some Things to Think About

1. What can you tell about the early life of John C. Calhoun? Of Henry Clay? Of Daniel Webster? Why were these three men considered the three great statesmen of their time?
2. Why was Clay called "the Great Peacemaker"?
3. Why were the people of South Carolina opposed to the high tariff laws of 1828 and 1832?
4. What was Webster's idea of the Union, and in what way did it differ from Hayne's?
5. What was the Missouri Compromise? What was the Compromise of 1850? Indicate on the map the territory covered by each compromise? Do you think a real difficulty can be settled by compromise?
6. What do you admire in each of the three great statesmen? Do you believe that each according to his way of thinking was sincerely trying to do the best thing for his country?

CHAPTER XXIV

THE CIVIL WAR DETERMINES THAT THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT IS TO BE SUPREME OVER THE STATES

THE BOYHOOD OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN PREPARES HIM FOR LEADERSHIP IN THE STRUGGLE

It was thought by many that the Compromise of 1850 would put an end to the bitter and violent feeling over the spread of slavery, but it did not. For in the North the opposition to its extension into new states became so powerful that in five years there had grown up a great political party—the Republican party—whose main purpose was to oppose the spread of slavery.

One of its ablest and most inspiring leaders was Abraham Lincoln. He was born in a rough cabin in Kentucky, February 12, 1809. When he was seven years old, the family moved to Indiana, and settled about eighteen miles north of the Ohio River. The journey to their new home was very tedious and lonely, for in some places they had to cut a roadway through the forest. It took them three days to travel the last eighteen miles.

Having arrived safely in November, all set vigorously to work to provide a shelter against the winter. The seven-year-old boy was healthy, rugged, and active, and from early morning till late evening he worked with his father, chop-

ping trees and cutting poles and boughs for their "camp," the rude shelter in which they were to live until spring.

This "camp" was a mere shed, only fourteen feet square and open on one side. It was built of poles lying one upon another, and had a thatched roof of boughs and leaves. As there was no chimney, there could be no fire within the enclosure, and it was necessary to keep one burning all the time just in front of the open side.

Abraham Lincoln.

During this first winter in the wild woods of Indiana the little boy must have lived a very busy life. There was much to do in building the cabin which was to take the place of the "camp" and in cutting down trees and making a clearing for the corn-planting of the coming spring.

After spending the winter in the "camp," the Lincoln family, in the following spring, moved into the newly built log cabin. This had no windows, and no floor except the bare earth. There was an opening on one side, which was used as a doorway, but there was no door, nor was there so much as an animal's skin to keep out the rain or the snow, or to protect the family from the cold wind.

In this rough abode the rude and simple furniture was very much like what we have already seen in the cabins of

the Tennessee settlers. For chairs there was the same kind of three-legged stools, made by smoothing the flat side of a split log and putting sticks into auger-holes underneath. The tables were as simply made, except that they stood on four legs instead of three. The crude bedsteads in the corners of the cabin were made by sticking poles in between the logs at right angles to the wall, the outside corner where the poles met being supported by a crotched stick driven into the ground. Ropes were then stretched from side to side, making a framework upon which shucks and leaves were heaped for bedding, and over all were thrown the skins of wild animals for a covering. Pegs driven into the wall served as a stairway to the loft, where there was another bed of leaves. Here little Abe slept.

Lincoln's Birthplace.

Abraham Lincoln's schooling was brief—not more than a year in all—and the schools he attended were like those we became acquainted with in the early settlements of Kentucky and Tennessee. During his last school-days he had to go daily a distance of four and one-half miles from his home, with probably no roadway except the deer-path through the forest. His midday lunch was a corn-dodger, which he carried in his pocket.

In spite of this meagre schooling, however, the boy, by his self-reliance, resolute purpose, and good reading habits,

acquired the very best sort of training for his future life. He had no books at his home, and, of course, there were but few to be had in that wild country from other homes. But among those he read over and over again, while a boy, were the Bible, "Æsop's Fables," "Robinson Crusoe," "Pilgrim's Progress," "A History of the United States," and Weems's "Life of Washington," all books of the right kind.

His stepmother said of him: "He read everything he could lay his hands on, and when he came across a passage that struck him, he would write it down on boards, if he had no paper, and keep it before him until he could get paper. Then he would copy it, look at it, commit it to memory, and repeat it."

When night came he would find a seat in the corner by the fireside, or stretch out at length on the floor in front of it, and by the firelight write, or work sums in arithmetic, on a wooden shovel, using a charred stick for a pencil. After covering the shovel, he would shave it off and use the surface over again.

But his time for arithmetic or for reading books was limited, for until he was twenty his father hired him out to do all sorts of work, at which he sometimes earned six dollars a month, and sometimes thirty-one cents a day. Money was always sorely needed in that household, the poor farm yielding only a small return for much hard work. For this reason, just before Abraham Lincoln came of age, his family, with all their possessions packed in a cart drawn

by four oxen, moved again toward the West. For two weeks they travelled across the country into Illinois, and finally made a new home on the banks of the Sangamon River.

Lincoln Studying by Firelight.

On reaching the end of the journey (in the spring of 1830), Abraham helped to build a log cabin and to clear fifteen acres of land for planting. This was the last work he did for his father, as he was now some months over twenty-one, and was quite ready to go out into the world and work for himself. When he left his father's house he had nothing, not even a good suit of clothes, and one of

the first things he did was to split rails for enough brown jeans to make him a pair of trousers. As he was six feet four inches tall, three and one-half yards were needed! For these he split 1,400 rails.

At times throughout life he was subject to deep depres-

Lincoln Splitting Rails.

sion, which made his face unspeakably sad. But as a rule he was cheerful and merry, and on account of his good stories, which he told with rare skill, he was in great demand in social gatherings and at the crossroads grocery-store. He was a giant in strength and a skilful wrestler. This helped to make him popular.

For some months after leaving his father's home, Lincoln worked in the neighborhood, most of the time as a farm-

hand and rail-splitter. But he desired something different. From time to time he had watched the boats carrying freight up and down the river, and had wondered where the vessels were going. Eager to learn about the life outside his narrow world, he determined to become a boatman. As soon as he could, therefore, he found employment on a flatboat that carried corn, hogs, hay, and other farm produce down to New Orleans.

Lincoln as a Boatman.

But tiring at length of the long journeys, he became clerk in a village store at New Salem, Illinois. Many stories are told of Lincoln's honesty in his dealings with the people in this village store. It is said that on one occasion a woman, in making change, overpaid him the trifling sum of six cents. When Lincoln found out the mistake, he walked three miles and back that night to give the woman her money.

In less than a year the closing of this village store left him without employment, and after this he had a varied experience, first in a grocery-store of his own, next as postmaster in New Salem, and then as a surveyor.

LINCOLN IS ELECTED PRESIDENT BY A NEW PARTY OPPOSED TO THE EXTENSION OF SLAVERY

After many trials at various occupations, he decided at last to become a lawyer, and after being admitted to the bar, he opened an office at Springfield, Illinois. He succeeded well in his chosen profession, and also took a keen interest in the larger affairs of his community and state.

In this wider field of action certain qualities of mind and heart greatly aided him. For, in spite of scant learning, he was a good public speaker and skilful debater, because he thought clearly and convinced those who heard him of his honesty and high purpose. Such a man is certain to win his way in the world. In due time he was elected to Congress, where his interest in various public questions, especially that of slavery, became much quickened.

On this question his clear head and warm heart united in forming strong convictions that had great weight with the people. He continued to grow in political favor and, in 1858, received the nomination of the Republican party for the United States Senate. His opponent was Stephen A. Douglas, known as the "Little Giant," on account of his short stature and powerful eloquence as an orator.

The debates between the two men, preceding the election, were followed with eager interest all over the country. Lincoln argued with great power against the spread of slavery into the new states, and although he lost the election, he

Vancouver Island
Victoria
C. Flattery
Vancouver
New Westminster
Seattle
Olympia
Portland
Columbia
WASHINGTON TERRITORY
OREGON
Butte
Helena
Missouri R.
Ft. Buford
Yellowstone R.
Bismarck
DAKOTA TERRITORY
Calgary
Saskatchewan R.
Regina
Boise City
Snake R.
Great Salt Lake
Ogden
Salt Lake City
NEVADA TERRITORY
Virginia City
Carson City
UTAH TERRITORY
Cheyenne
NEBRASKA TERRITORY
Denver
Leadville
COLORADO TERRITORY
Colorado R.
Sacramento
San Francisco
CALIFORNIA
Los Angeles
San Diego
Santa Fe
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
Phantx
Tucson
El Paso
Chihuahua
Guaymas
Rio Grande
Monterey
Durango
C. San Lucas
PACIFIC OCEAN
MEXICO
MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
SHOWING
FIRST AND SECOND SECESSION AREA
and the Four Slave States that did not secede.
Union Free States.
Union Slaveholding States.
States seceded before April 15, 1861.
States seceded after April 15, 1861.
Territories controlled by the Federal Government.
50 100 200 300 400
Scale of Miles.

Hudson Bay
Albany R.
Lake St. John
Quebec
St. Lawrence R.
Lake of the Woods
Lake Superior
Sault Ste. Marie
Ottawa R.
Montreal
MAINE
Duluth
Ottawa
Augusta
Portland
Concord
Boston
C. Cod
Providence
Newport
Montpelier
VERMONT
NEW HAMP.
MASS.
CONN.
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Toronto
Lake Ontario
Rochester
Albany
Hartford
New York
Brooklyn
Philadelphia
Trenton
Minneapolis
St. Paul
WISCONSIN
Milwaukee
Madison
Lansing
Detroit
Niagara Falls
Buffalo
Lake Erie
NEW YORK
Chicago
Des Moines
IOWA
Toledo
Cleveland
PENNSYLVANIA
Pittsburg
Harrisburg
Baltimore
MARYLAND
Washington
ILLINOIS
Springfield
Indianapolis
Columbus
OHIO
Charleston
Richmond
VIRGINIA
Norfolk
Kansas City
St. Louis
Jefferson City
MISSOURI
Evansville
Louisville
Frankfort
KENTUCKY
C. Hatteras
Raleigh
NORTH CAROLINA
Nashville
TENNESSEE
Chattanooga
Memphis
Wilmington
ARKANSAS
Little Rock
Tennessee R.
Atlanta
Augusta
Charleston
Ft. Sumter
SOUTH CAROLINA
Columbia
Birmingham
ALABAMA
Montgomery
GEORGIA
Dallas
Vicksburg
Jackson
Mobile
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
Baton Rouge
Pensacola
Tallahassee
New Orleans
Apalachicola
St. John R.
Houston
Galveston
Tampa
Bahama Islands
GULF OF MEXICO
Punta Gorda
C. Sable
Key West
Matamoros
CUBA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
TRE M. M. CO.

won such favorable notice that two years later a greater honor came to him. In 1860 the Republican National Convention, which met at Chicago, nominated him as its candidate for President, and a few months later he was elected.

The agitation over slavery was growing more and more bitter, and when Lincoln was elected some of the Southern states threatened to go out of the Union. They claimed that it was their right to decide for themselves whether they should secede. On the other hand, the North declared that no state could secede without the consent of the other states.

Before Lincoln was inaugurated seven of the Southern states had carried out their threat to secede.

JEFFERSON DAVIS BECOMES PRESIDENT OF THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY

Delegates from six of the seven* Southern states which had seceded met at Montgomery, Alabama, on February 4, 1861, and organized the "Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis of Mississippi was elected President and Alexander Stephens of Georgia Vice-President.

Davis, the leader of the South during the four years of the war, was born in Kentucky in 1808 and died in 1889. He graduated from West Point in 1828 and served the Government of the United States faithfully and with dis-

* Texas was not represented.

tinction until the outbreak of the war. After some years in the United States army he became a cotton-planter in Mississippi. In 1845 he was a member of the Lower House of Congress; he re-entered the army at the outbreak of the Mexican War, distinguishing himself for bravery; and in 1847 he was elected a senator from Mississippi. He was Secretary of War in Pierce's Cabinet, 1853–1857, and in 1857 again represented his state in the United States Senate, remaining there until Mississippi seceded.

Jefferson Davis.

Though Davis was severely criticised for many of his acts as President of the Confederate States, his great ability is now recognized by all. After the close of the war he was imprisoned for a time in Fortress Monroe and was bitterly condemned by the Northern people as the chief representative of the South. Throughout this trying period he conducted himself with dignity and patience and became the idol of the Southern people. To-day they look on Jefferson Davis as one of their great heroes.

Upon the organization of the Confederate Government with Davis as President the excitement everywhere was intense. Many people regretted that a man of larger experience than Lincoln had not been chosen to be at the head

of the government. They were anxious lest this plain man of the people, this awkward backwoodsman, should not be able to lead the nation in those dark and troubled days. But, little as they trusted him, he was well fitted for the work that lay before him.

LINCOLN'S GREAT PURPOSE IS TO SAVE THE UNION

His inauguration was but a few weeks over when the Civil War began. We cannot here pause for a full account of all Lincoln's trials and difficulties in this fearful struggle. During those four fateful years, 1861–1865, his burdens were almost overwhelming. But, like Washington, he believed that "right makes might" and must prevail, and this belief sustained him.

Although his whole nature revolted against slavery, he had no power to do away with it in the states where it existed, for by his office he was sworn to defend the Constitution. "My great purpose," he said, "is to save the Union, and not to destroy slavery."

But as the war went on he became certain that the slaves, by remaining on the plantations and producing food for the Southern soldiers, were aiding the Southern cause. He therefore determined to set the slaves free in all the territory where people were fighting to break up the Union, just as fast as it was conquered by Union troops. "As commander-in-chief of the Union armies," he reasoned, "I have a right to do this as a war measure." The famous state paper in

which Lincoln declared that such slaves were free was called the Emancipation Proclamation (January 1, 1863).

This freeing of a part of the slaves not only hastened the end of the war but led, after its close, to the final emancipation of all the slaves. We should remember that the man who did most to bring about this result was Abraham Lincoln, whose name has gone down in history as the great emancipator.

Lincoln Visiting Wounded Soldiers.

Passing over the events of the war, which we shall consider later in connection with its great generals, let us look ahead two years.

On April 9, 1865, General Lee, as we shall see a little later, surrendered his army to General Grant at Appomattox Court House. By this act the war was brought to a close, and there was great rejoicing in the North and great relief throughout the South.

But suddenly universal sorrow followed joy and relief, for a shocking thing happened. Five days after Lee's

surrender, while Lincoln, with his wife and friends, was attending a play at Ford's Theatre, in Washington, a half-demented actor, John Wilkes Booth, entered the President's box, shot him in the back of the head, jumped to the stage, and escaped.

The martyr President lingered during the long hours of the sad night, tenderly watched by his family and a few friends. When, on the following morning, he breathed his last, Secretary Stanton said with truth: "Now he belongs to the ages."

The people deeply mourned the loss of him who had wisely and bravely led them through four years of heavy trial and anxiety. His life as expressed in devotion to his country and in noble self-sacrifice is one of the richest gifts in our heritage as a nation.

ROBERT E. LEE BECOMES THE GALLANT LEADER AND IDOL OF THE SOUTH

Having followed a few of the leading events in the remarkable career of our martyr President, let us turn our thoughts to the Civil War, through which it was Lincoln's great work to guide us as a nation. It was a struggle that tested the manhood, quite as much as the resources, of the warring sections, and both sides might well be proud of the bravery and ability of their officers and soldiers. Certainly both sides had generals who ranked with the greatest military leaders of all time.

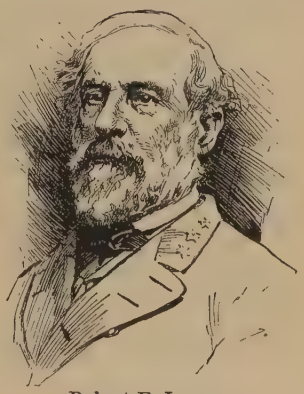
One of the ablest generals commanding the Confederate troops was Robert E. Lee. He was born in Virginia, January 19, 1807, his father being the Revolutionary general known as "Light-Horse Harry." Although the records of his boyhood days are meagre, we know that the Lees moved from Stratford to Alexandria to educate their children when little Robert was about four years old. Here he was prepared for West Point Military Academy, which he entered at the age of eighteen. He made a good record as a student and was graduated second in his class.

Lee's Home at Arlington, Virginia.

Two years later he married Miss Custis, a great-granddaughter of Mrs. George Washington, and through this marriage he shared with his wife the control of large property, which included plantations and a number of slaves.

Immediately after leaving West Point, he entered the army as an engineer, and during the Mexican War distinguished himself for his ability and bravery. A few years later (1852), he was appointed superintendent of West Point Academy, where he remained three years.

At the outbreak of the Civil War he was so highly esteemed as an officer in the United States army, that he would have been appointed commander of the Union armies if he had been willing to accept the position. He loved the Union, and was opposed to secession, but when Virginia, his native state, seceded, he felt that it was his duty to go with her.



Robert E. Lee.

That the decision was painful to him is made plain in a letter to his sister, then living in Baltimore. "With all my devotion to the Union," he said, "and the feeling of loyalty and duty of an American citizen, I have not been able to make up my mind to raise my hand against my relatives, my children, my home. I know you will blame me, but you must think as kindly of me as you can, and believe that I have endeavored to do what I thought right."

Soon after he decided to go with Virginia, he accepted the command of the Virginia state forces, and within a year from that time became military adviser of Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederacy.

In 1862, the second year of the war, Lee was in command of the Confederate army in Virginia. General McClellan, who commanded a large Union army, had been

trying to capture Richmond, the capital of the Confederate States. After fighting a series of battles, he approached so close to Richmond that his soldiers could see the spires of the churches. But as the city was strongly fortified he retreated to the James River. During this retreat, which lasted a week, the "Seven Days' Battles" were fought.

Having saved Richmond, Lee marched north into Maryland, expecting the people to rise and join his forces. But they were loyal to the Union, and the terrible battle of Antietam, or Sharpsburg (September, 1862), compelled Lee to retreat to Virginia.

"STONEWALL" JACKSON IS ONE OF THE ABLEST GENERALS UNDER LEE

In this and other battles Lee's most effective helper was General Thomas J. Jackson, "Stonewall" Jackson, as he was called. Jackson won his nickname at the battle of Bull Run. One of the Confederate generals, who was trying to hearten his retreating men, cried out to them: "See, there is Jackson, standing like a stone wall! Rally round the Virginians!" From that hour of heroism he was known as Stonewall Jackson, and for his bravery in this battle he was made a major-general. He was a stubborn fighter, and so furious in his enthusiasm that "his soldiers marched to death when he bade them. What was even harder, they marched at the double-quick through Virginia mud, without shoes, without food, without sleep." They cheerfully

did his bidding because they loved him. The sight of his old uniform and scrawny sorrel horse always stirred the hearts of his followers.

Jackson was a deeply religious man. In spirit he was so much of a Puritan that it caused him great regret to march or to fight on a Sunday. He was devoted to Lee and placed the greatest confidence in him. "He is the only man I would follow blindfold," he said, and on his death-bed he exclaimed: "Better that ten Jacksons should fall than one Lee!"

Thomas J. Jackson

Stonewall Jackson was shot at the battle of Chancellorsville, but not by the enemy. He and his escort had ridden out beyond his line of battle, when, being mistaken for the enemy, they were fired upon by some of their own soldiers, and Jackson was mortally wounded. His death was a great loss to the Southern army.

J. E. B. STUART WOULD ATTACK ANYTHING ANYWHERE

Another of General Lee's very able helpers was General Stuart. He wrote his name J. E. B. Stuart. So his admirers called him "Jeb."

He was absolutely fearless. "He would attack anything anywhere," and he inspired his men with the same zeal. He was noted for falling into dangerous situations and then

cleverly getting himself out. His men were used to this. They trusted him completely and without question. They loved him, too, for his good comradeship. For, although he preserved the strictest discipline, he frolicked with his offi-

Confederate Soldiers.

cers like a boy, playing at snowballs, or marbles, or whatever they chose, and enjoying it all heartily.

He was so fond of gay, martial music that he kept his banjo-player, Sweeney, always with him, and worked in his tent to the cheerful accompaniment of his favorite songs, now and then leaning back to laugh and join in the choruses.

His gay spirit found expression also in the clothes he wore. Listen to this description of him: "His fighting-

jacket shone with dazzling buttons and was covered with gold braid; his hat was looped up with a golden star and decorated with a black ostrich plume; his fine buff gauntlets reached to the elbow; around his waist was tied a splendid yellow sash, and his spurs were pure gold." These spurs, of which he was immensely proud, were a gift from Baltimore women. His battle-flag was a gorgeous red one, which he insisted upon keeping with him, although it often drew the enemy's fire.

Stuart was very proud of his men and their pluck. He knew by name every man in the first brigade.

It was his strong desire that when death should come, he might meet it while leading a cavalry charge; and he had his wish. For he was struck down near Richmond, in 1864, while he was leading an attack against Sheridan. He was only thirty-one when he died, deeply mourned by all his men.

THE TIDE TURNS AGAINST THE SOUTH AT GETTYSBURG

But to return to General Lee. After winning the two important battles of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville, he decided that he would again invade the North (1863). He believed that a great victory north of the Potomac River might lead to the capture of Philadelphia and Washington, and thus end the war.

Having marched boldly into Pennsylvania, he met the Union army, under General Meade, at the little town of

Gettysburg, not far from the southern border of the state. There the most terrible battle of the war and, in its results, one of the greatest battles of all history took place. After three days of fighting, in which the loss on both sides was fearful, Lee was defeated and forced to retreat to Virginia.

The defeat at Gettysburg was a crushing blow to the hopes of the South. Lee himself felt this to be true. And, grieving over the heavy loss of his men in the famous Pickett's charge, he said to one of his generals: "All this has been my fault. It is I that have lost this fight, and you must help me out of it the best you can." But Lee's officers and soldiers still trusted their commander. They said: "Uncle Robert will get us into Washington yet."

The surrender of another division of the Confederate army, fighting far away on the Mississippi River, added defeat to defeat. On the day following the battle of Gettysburg, General Grant captured Vicksburg, the greatest Confederate stronghold on the Mississippi River. The South could no longer hope for victory.

ULYSSES S. GRANT BECOMES THE GREAT GENERAL OF THE UNION ARMIES

Before going on with the story of the war, let us pause for a little to catch a glimpse of Ulysses S. Grant, the greatest general that the North produced throughout the war.

He was born at Point Pleasant, Ohio, in April, 1822,

but in the following year the family removed to Georgetown, Ohio, where they lived many years, the father being a farmer and manufacturer of leather. Ulysses did not like the leather business, but he did like work on the farm. When only seven years old, he hauled from the forest, a mile from the village, all the wood which was needed in the home and at the leather factory.

Union Soldiers.

From the age of eleven to seventeen, according to his own story as told in his "Personal Memoirs," he ploughed the soil, cultivated the growing corn and potatoes, sawed fire-wood, and did any other work a farmer boy might be expected to do. He had his play times also, fishing, swimming in the creek not far from his home, driving about the country, and skating with other boys.

He liked horses, and early became a skilful rider. A story is told of him which indicates not only that he was a good horseman but that he had "bulldog grit" as well.

One day, when he was at a circus, the manager offered a silver dollar to any one who could ride a certain mule around the ring. Several persons, one after the other, mounted the animal, only to be thrown over its head. Young Ulysses was among those who offered to ride, but, like the others, he failed. Then, pulling off his coat, he got on the animal again. With his legs firmly around the mule's body he seized it by the tail, and rode in triumph around the ring amid the cheers of the crowd.

Ulysses S. Grant.

Although he cared little for study, his father wished to give him all the advantages of a good education, and got for him an appointment to West Point. After graduating he wished to leave the army and become an instructor in mathematics at his alma mater. But, as the Mexican War broke out about that time, he entered active service. Soon he gave striking evidence of that unflinching bravery for which he was later to become noted on the battle-fields of the Civil War.

At the close of the Mexican War, he resigned from the army and engaged in farming and business until the outbreak of the Civil War. With the news that the Southern troops had fired on the flag at Fort Sumter, Grant's patriotism was aroused. Without delay he rejoined the army

and at once took an active part in getting ready for the war. First as colonel, and then as brigadier-general, his ability as a leader quickly developed.

Soon after taking command, his army captured Forts Henry and Donelson, in Tennessee, the centre of a strong Confederate line of defense. Following up his advantage he defeated the Confederates at Pittsburg Landing, not far from the village of Shiloh, by whose name the battle is now generally known.

By this victory Grant broke the Confederates' second line of defense. Although they fought bravely to keep control of the Mississippi, by the close of 1862 they had lost every stronghold on the river except Port Hudson and Vicksburg.

On July 4, 1863, Vicksburg surrendered to General Grant and four days later Port Hudson came under the control of Union troops.

By his campaign in the west, and especially by his capture of Vicksburg, General Grant won the confidence of the people and of President Lincoln, who in 1864 put him in command of all the Union armies. In presenting the new commission, Lincoln addressed him in these words: "As the country herein trusts you, so, under God, it will sustain you." General Grant replied, in accepting the commission: "With the aid of the noble armies that have fought on so many fields of our common country, it will be my earnest endeavor not to disappoint your expectations."

WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN AND HIS ARMY MARCH "FROM ATLANTA TO THE SEA"

In the spring of that year the Confederates had two large armies in the field. One of them, under General Lee, was defending Richmond. The other, under General Joseph E. Johnston, was defending their cause in Tennessee. General Grant's plan was to send General Sherman, in whom he had great confidence, against General Johnston, with orders to capture Atlanta, which was now the workshop and storehouse of the Confederacy. Grant himself was to march against Lee and capture Richmond. The two great watchwords were: "On to Atlanta!" and "On to Richmond!"

Early in May both generals began their campaigns. Starting from Chattanooga, in Tennessee, Sherman began to crowd Johnston toward Atlanta. His advance was slow but steady, and on September 2 he captured that city.

A little later Sherman started on his famous march "from Atlanta to the sea." His purpose was to weaken the Confederates by destroying their railroads, bridges, and supplies. Marching his army in four columns, over a belt of territory sixty miles wide, he reached his goal four days before Christmas and captured the city of Savannah.

During his march Sherman laid waste a vast stretch of country by destroying crops, horses, cattle, sheep, and

almost everything else that might aid the Confederacy. In his report he said: "I estimate the damage done to the State of Georgia and its military resources at $100,000,000, at least $20,000,000 of which . . . is simple waste and destruction." Although such a course may seem cruel, it is considered just as good generalship to starve an army into submission as to destroy it by fire-arms. But it indicates war's awful destructiveness. It is not surprising that Sherman afterward exclaimed "War is hell!" and that even to-day his name to the Southern people typifies war's horror and brutality.

William Tecumseh Sherman.

Let us make the acquaintance of this remarkable man. He was at this time forty-four. Standing six feet high, with a military bearing, he gave the impression of having great physical endurance. He had muscles of iron, and no matter whether exposed to drenching rain, bitter cold, or burning heat, he never gave signs of fatigue. Many nights he slept only three or four hours, but was able to fall asleep easily almost anywhere he happened to be, whether lying upon the wet ground or on a hard floor, or even amid the din and roar of muskets and cannon.

In battle he could not, like General Grant, sit calmly smoking and looking on. He was too much excited to sit

still, and his face reflected his thoughts. Yet his mind was clear and his decisions were rapid.

His soldiers admired him and gave him their unbounded confidence. One of his staff said of him while they were on the "March to the Sea": "The army has such an abiding faith in its leader that it will go wher-

Route of Sherman's March to the Sea.

ever he leads." At Savannah the soldiers would proudly remark as their general rode by: "There goes the old man. All's right."

While General Sherman, in Georgia, was pushing his army "On to Atlanta" and "On to the Sea," Grant at the head of his army was opposing Lee and was trying to reach Richmond. With this aim in view, Grant crossed the Rapidan River and entered the wilderness in direct line for Richmond. Here fighting was stern business. The woods were

so dark and the underbrush was so thick that the men could not see one another twenty feet away.

Lee's army furiously contested every foot of the advance. In the terrible battles that followed, Grant lost heavily, but he pressed doggedly on, writing to President Lincoln his stubborn resolve: "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer."

It did take all summer and longer. Moreover, Grant found that he could not possibly capture Richmond from the north. So he crossed the James River and attacked the city from the south. Yet when autumn ended, Lee was still holding out, and Grant's army settled down for the winter south of Petersburg.

PHILIP H. SHERIDAN, A CAVALRY LEADER WHO WOULD NOT BE DEFEATED

At this time one of Grant's most able generals was Philip H. Sheridan, a brilliant cavalry leader. As a boy he had a strong liking for books, and especially those which told of war and adventure. While he read, perhaps he dreamed of the days when he too might be a great soldier.

He first came into prominent notice in the summer and autumn of 1864, when he was thirty-three years old. He was short, and, as he weighed but 115 pounds, was not impressive in person; but when commanding in a cavalry charge his presence was most inspiring.

No matter how trying the situation might be, he never

lost self-control, and was always kind and friendly toward those working with him. But perhaps his finest quality was a stern devotion to duty. He said, in effect: "In all the various positions I have held, my sole aim has ever been to be the best officer I could and let the future take care of itself." Such a man, whether civilian or soldier, is a true patriot.

It was early in August, 1864, that General Grant placed Sheridan in command of the Union army in the Shenandoah valley, with orders to drive the enemy out and destroy their food-supplies.

Sheridan entered the valley from the north, destroyed large quantities of supplies, and after some fighting went into camp on the north side of Cedar Creek in October. A few days later he was called to Washington. Returning on the 18th, he stayed overnight at Winchester, some fourteen miles from Cedar Creek.

About six o'clock the next morning, a picket on duty reported that he could hear cannon in the direction of Cedar Creek. At first Sheridan paid little attention. Then he began to be disturbed. He writes: "I tried to go to sleep again, but grew so restless that I could not and soon got up and dressed myself." Eating a hurried breakfast, he mounted his splendid coal-black steed, Rienzi, and started for the battle-field. This was the ride that afterward became famous as "Sheridan's Ride."

As he rode forward he caught the sound of booming

cannon. Then he saw a part of his army in full retreat, and fugitives told him that a battle had been fought against General Early's Confederates and everything was lost.

With two aides and twenty men Sheridan gallantly dashed to the front as fast as his foaming steed could carry him. Meeting a retreating officer who said "The army is whipped," Sheridan replied: "You are, but the army isn't."

Philip H. Sheridan.

As he pushed ahead he said to his soldiers: "If I had been with you this morning this disaster would not have happened. We must face the other way. We must go back and recover our camp."

As soon as his troops caught sight of "Little Phil," as they liked to call him, they threw their hats into the air and with enthusiastic cheers shouldered their muskets and faced about. Sheridan brought order out of confusion, and in the battle that followed drove Early's army from the field in utter rout. Great was the rejoicing in the North over this victory, and Sheridan himself was raised to the rank of major-general.

The victory was largely due to Sheridan's magnetic influence over his men. The following incident illustrates this remarkable power of "Little Phil": At the battle of

Five Forks, which took place near Richmond the next spring (1865), a wounded soldier in the line of battle near Sheridan stumbled and was falling behind his regiment. But when Sheridan cried out "Never mind, my man; there's no harm done!" the soldier, although with a bullet in his brain, went forward with his fighting comrades till he fell dead.

THE TWO GREAT RIVAL GENERALS MEET TO END THE WAR

Let us now return to Grant. After remaining near Petersburg all winter, in the spring of 1865 he pressed so hard upon the Confederate army that Lee had to leave Richmond and move rapidly westward in order to escape capture. For a week Grant closely followed Lee's troops, who were almost starving; all they had to eat was parched corn and green shoots of trees, and the outlook was so dark that many had deserted and started for home.

There was but one thing left for Lee to do. That was to give up the struggle, for he knew the Southern cause was hopeless. An interview, therefore, was arranged with Grant. It was held on Sunday morning, April 9, in a house standing in the little village of Appomattox Court House.

The result of the interview was the surrender of General Lee and his army. When this took place General Grant showed clearly his great kindness of heart and his fine feeling. He issued orders that all the Confederates who owned horses and mules should be allowed to take them home. "They will need them for the spring ploughing," he said.

He also had abundant food sent at once to the hungry Confederate soldiers. Never did General Grant appear more truly great than on the occasion of Lee's surrender.

He was indeed a remarkable man in many ways. While in the army he seemed to have wonderful powers of endurance. He said of himself: "Whether I slept on the ground or in a tent, whether I slept one hour or ten in the twenty-four, whether I had one meal or three, or none, made no difference. I would lie down and sleep in the rain without caring."

Yet his appearance did not indicate robust health. He was only five feet eight inches tall, round-shouldered, and not at all military in bearing or walk. But his brown hair, blue eyes, and musical voice gave a pleasing impression. He was of a sunny disposition and of singularly pure mind. Never in his life was he known to tell an unclean story. In manner he was quiet and simple, yet dignified, and he was always ready when there was a severe ordeal to face.

While the two great commanders, Grant and Lee, were much unlike in personal appearance, they had certain qualities in common, for they were both simple-hearted and frank, and men of deep and tender feelings.

April 9 was a sad day for General Lee. As he stepped out of the door of the house where the terms of surrender had been agreed upon and stood in silence, waiting for his horse to be brought to him, he clasped his hands together

as if in deep pain and looked far away into the distance. Then, mounting his steed, he rode back to the Confederate camp, where his officers and men awaited his coming.

On his approach they crowded about their beloved chief in their eagerness to touch him, or even his horse. Looking upon his veteran soldiers for the last time, Lee said, with saddened voice: "We have fought through the war together; I have done the best I could for you. My heart is too full to say more." Then he silently rode off to his tent.

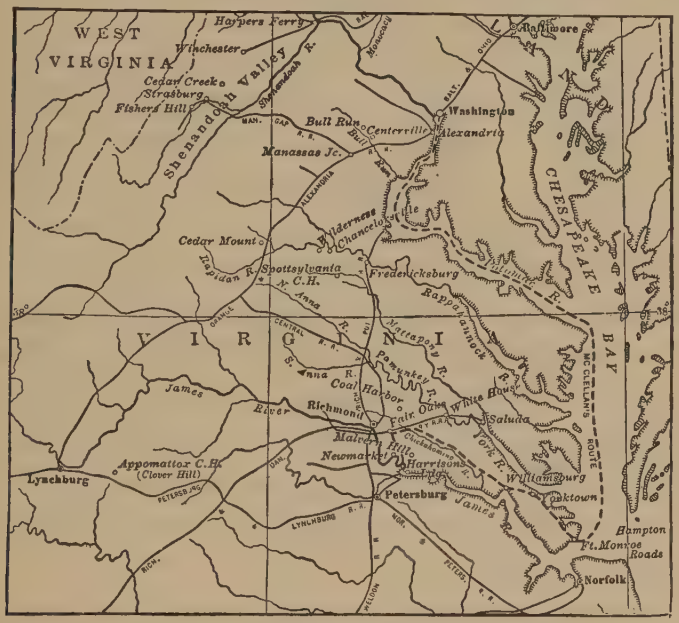
These simple, heartfelt words to his "children," as he called his soldiers, were in keeping with his habit during the entire war. Rarely did he leave his tent to sleep in a house, and often his diet consisted of salted cabbage only. He thought it a luxury to have sweet potatoes and buttermilk.

The gentleness and kindness of General Lee were seen also in his fondness for animals. When the war was over his iron-gray horse, Traveller, which had been his faithful companion throughout the struggle, was very dear to him. Often, when entering the gate on returning to his house, he would turn aside to stroke the noble creature, and often the two wandered forth into the mountains, companions to the last.

Within a year after the close of the war General Lee was elected president of Washington College, at Lexington, Virginia—now called Washington and Lee University.

There he remained until his death, in 1870. We remember him as a distinguished general and a high-minded gentleman.

Three years after the close of the war (1868) General Grant was elected President of the United States, and served



The Country Around Washington and Richmond.

two terms. Upon retiring from the presidency, he made a tour around the world, a more unusual thing in those days than now. He was everywhere received, by rulers and people alike, with marked honor and distinction.

His last days were full of suffering from an illness which proved a worse enemy than ever he had found on the field of battle. After nine months of brave endurance he died

on July 23, 1885. Undoubtedly he was one of the ablest generals of history.

THE NATION IS UNITED AFTER FOUR YEARS OF TERRIBLE STRUGGLE

The war, in which these two distinguished commanders, General Grant and General Lee, had led opposing sides, cost the nation not only thousands of men, the vast majority in the prime of their young manhood, but millions of dollars. It had two striking results: it preserved the Union, for it was now clear that no state could secede at will; and it put an end to slavery. The Emancipation Proclamation had set free only those slaves in the states and parts of states which were under the control of Union armies; but after the war the Thirteenth Amendment set free all the slaves in all the states in the Union for all time. These were the benefits purchased by the terrible sacrifice of life.

If we count those who were slain on the field of battle and those who died from wounds, disease, and suffering in wretched prisons, the loss of men was equal to seven hundred a day during the four long years of the war.

When the war was over a wave of intense relief swept over the country. In many homes were glad reunions; in others, hallowed memories. But in the united nation there was hope of a new patriotism which in time would bind all sections into a closer union.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell what you can about Lincoln's early life. In what ways did Lincoln have excellent training for the Presidency of the United States?
2. Was Lincoln educated according to the usual meaning of the word?
3. What was the great issue in the presidential election of 1860? What was Lincoln's immediate problem following his inauguration?
4. Did all the slave states secede? Name and point out on the map those that seceded and those that remained in the Union.
5. Why was Jefferson Davis chosen President of the Confederacy?
6. When was the Emancipation Proclamation issued? Was it Lincoln's original purpose to free the slaves? What was his great purpose? What is Lincoln's place in our history?
7. How did Lee's early training differ from Lincoln's? What distinctive services had he rendered to his country?
8. The text says Lee was devoted to the Union. Why then did he go with his state when it seceded? How do you estimate Lee as a man and as a general?
9. Tell something that gives each of the following a claim to distinction: "Stonewall" Jackson, Stuart, Sherman, Sheridan.
10. Why did Lincoln finally appoint Grant general of all the Union armies? What did Grant finally achieve?
11. What do you admire in Grant and in Lee at the time of the surrender?
12. What did the Civil War settle? Think clearly on this.

CHAPTER XXV

LEADERS IN THE OPENING OF THE GREAT WEST

I

CLARENCE KING, A YOUNG GEOLOGIST, UNDERTAKES AN IMPORTANT SURVEY IN THIS VAST REGION

At the close of the Civil War the larger part of our country lying west of the Mississippi River was still unsettled. Beyond the borders of the older states of Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas, and the more thickly settled parts of Minnesota and Texas, there were not more than 1,500,000 people. Much of that vast expanse of territory, comprising nearly two-thirds of our whole country, was inhabited only by roving tribes of Indians.

Examine your map; count the states that have been admitted to the Union since 1865; and add together their populations. Note how many million people there are now in that same area, and ask yourself how in sixty years the great change came about. What was it that drew so many settlers from their old homes to build new ones in these distant plains, amid untrod valleys and mountains?

You will find the answer in the treasure which had long remained buried in the earth and had only recently been discovered. Like a magnet, it drew, first prospectors and miners, and then settlers, in ever-increasing numbers.

Among the earliest prospecting engineers was Clarence King, who took the trail in the spring of 1863, soon after graduating from Yale College. He had varied experiences on horseback and on foot, roughing it with the miners and sharing the perils of the plains. After a short stop at Virginia City, he crossed the Sierra Nevada Mountains, and made his way to Sacramento, where he took passage on a river steamer to San Francisco.

There a United States geological survey of California had already begun, and King was appointed an assistant geologist, beginning his work in September, 1863.

While exploring the Sierra Nevada Mountains he planned a much larger project. It was to induce Congress to authorize a geological survey that would cross the Rocky Mountains and extend to the shores of the Pacific.

Its purpose was to find out what kind of minerals were locked up in the mountains, for King believed that, if the mines proved to be of great value, they would attract miners and settlers, just as the gold had attracted them to California some years earlier.

In March, 1867, Congress passed a law authorizing the Secretary of War to direct a geological exploration of the territory between the Rockies and the Sierra Nevada Mountains. A report was to be made on all the resources of the region—animal, vegetable, and mineral.

Clarence King was appointed geologist in charge. His task was heavy, but in fulfilling it he helped to open up the

Far West for immediate settlement. He stands as a type of many eager, hard-working, and hopeful engineers who braved all the hardships of pioneer life in laying open the secrets of the mountains. Their services were of immense value to the country, for during the next thirty years development was amazing.

Some Things to Think About

1. What states have been admitted to the Union since the close of the Civil War, and what is their population now?
2. Explain the reason for this wonderful increase in population.
3. What types of leaders were needed in the opening of the Far West?
4. Why would geologists and prospectors be among the first to go into this new country?

II

The Miner, Lured by Gold, Endures Every Hardship

While engineers were making scientific records of their discoveries, hundreds of other men, unheard of in the world of science, were plying pick-axe and shovel to unearth the hard metals. These men were not geologists; nor were they working under the government; they were prospectors and miners. Yet while only hunting for gold, they were serving their country, for they were causing people to think about the mountain regions; and this led to the planting of settlements.

Life was hard for those who went first, whether miners or settlers, but the memory of gold in California and the reports of rich deposits in the new fields lured them on.

Many small bands of men went on foot into the moun-

tain valleys, where they built frail huts and rough camps along the rivulets running down the mountainsides. From early morning till nightfall they toiled, eating and sleeping within reach of prowling bears and wolves. They suffered, too, from savage attacks of Indians and from threatened

Prospectors on Their Way West.

famine. Yet camps grew up rapidly and then as rapidly disappeared. For, although some met with success, by far the greater number, after weeks and even months of fruitless labor, gave up in sadness and disappointment.

Few of these bold prospectors are known to history, for they only blazed the way where countless numbers of homemakers followed; but we may well remember them for their patience and courage.

As early as the fifties adventurous pioneers were pushing into the mountains, all the way from Washington on

the north to New Mexico and Arizona on the south. At Pike's Peak gold was found in the fall of 1858, and before the summer of 1859 nearly 100,000 were on their way to the diggings.

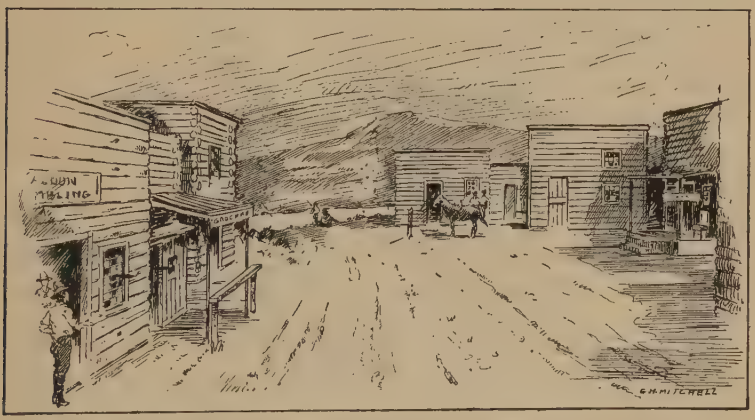
NEW CAMPS GROW UP LIKE MUSHROOMS

A far greater boom came when a rich vein of silver was found at Gold Hill, in what is now Nevada. It was in the Sierra Nevada range and was called the Comstock Lode. From all directions men swarmed in thousands by stage and on foot to the new diggings. Clarence King stopped here on his trail to California.

For fifteen years after the discovery of gold in California bands of hardy and fearless pioneers had continued to discover new mines in hundreds of places throughout the Rocky Mountain region. When the new digging was successful, a mining-camp grew up near it. Generally this was only a single street along the bank of a winding stream, with irregular rows of one-story huts on either side.

The saloon and the general store found a place in every camp, and often a dance-hall and a gambling-house. Deep ruts, cut by heavy wagons loaded with supplies for the miners, scarred the street, and usually at all the hitching-posts were horses whose owners had come from the near-by diggings to make purchases or for recreation. Here with his fellows the miner could forget for a while the tedium of his lonely and dreary life.

Sometimes the camp was located so far up the mountain that it could be reached only by a narrow trail. In that case the miner's outfit and supplies had to be carried up by horses, mules, or little burros. It was fortunate for the small prospector, when obliged to live alone for weeks



A Frontier Town Where the Miners Exchanged Their Products for Needed Supplies.

at a time, that he found good fishing in the streams and good hunting in his wild surroundings.

In regions where a very rich vein was struck, the camp would grow rapidly into a town or city, and become a trade centre where the miners exchanged the products of the mines for needed supplies. Among many cities which had their beginning in this way are Denver, Carson City, Boise, and Helena.

While in the early sixties there were many mines scattered throughout the mountain region, there was not a per-

manent population, for there were no farms to raise food, the climate not being suited for agriculture. The rainfall was so slight that much of the land was half desert, and crops could be raised only by the aid of irrigation.

Some Things to Think About

1. How did the miners serve their country?
2. Tell what you can about their hardships.
3. Describe a mining-camp.
4. Give names of cities that had their beginning as mining-camps.

III

PASSENGERS TRAVEL BY STAGE-COACH; MAIL GOES BY PONY EXPRESS TO THE FAR WEST

In the days before the building of railroads, travel to the mining regions was slow and dangerous. Some emigrants went by pack-trains; others in their own wagons, drawn by mules or oxen; but far the larger number went by stage over a regular route and paid for their passage just as we would do by rail to-day.

The stage-coach of the late fifties and sixties accommodated from nine to fourteen passengers inside, and one or two with the driver high up in front. Under the driver's seat were tucked numerous packages, and in a triangular "boot" behind were stowed the mail and the boxes and other baggage of passengers. Sometimes the overflow was crowded inside the coach, making the seats more uncomfortable for long stretches of travel. An adjustable cur-

tain kept out some of the cold and the rain. Drawn by four galloping mules and glistening with its bright-red paint, the stage made a cheerful sight; but on one occasion at least the color proved too attractive, for the stage was

From a drawing by Will James.

A Stage-Coach.

overturned by a herd of angry buffaloes, and the passengers spilled by the roadside. Horace Greeley was among them.

On the route at long intervals were stations. Some were called "home stations," because a family lived there and served meals while the stage stopped for ten minutes. Perhaps that was long enough, for the bacon and potatoes, coffee and bread were none too good. There were also "swing stations," with little more than a corral and a haystack, since the comfort of the mules and horses was even more important than the welfare of the passengers.

Travel was continuous, twenty-four hours every day, except when the short stop was made for meals or for a change of mules. The route started at St. Louis, followed the Oregon trail up the North Platte valley, and then, branching off to the California trail near Great Salt Lake, ran to Sacramento. It took a stout heart to brave the journey of 1,900 miles and the schedule time of twenty-three days. The expense, too, was considerable, the fare to Carson City, for instance, being $150.

Freight-wagons were in use over all stage routes, to carry goods and supplies, but in time, as mining settlements increased, there was a demand for quicker communication between the East and the West.

THE PONY EXPRESS BEGINS ITS PICTURESQUE CAREER

To supply the demand for quicker mail service, the Pony Express was started. It began its brief, picturesque career in April, 1860, and while it lasted gave excellent service. The route started at St. Joseph, Missouri, and, passing through Salt Lake City and Carson City, followed the stage route to Sacramento.

There were in all 200 stations, from nine to fifteen miles apart, where riders, fleet horses, and tenders were grouped. The distance covered was not far from 2,000 miles. The "beat" of each horseman was about fifty miles, but he changed his horse at every station. Eighty pony riders, therefore, were required, forty going east and forty west.

They were small men, weighing 135 pounds or even less; often they were boys of fourteen. The letters were written on tissue-paper, to save weight and bulk, and were carried in a flat pouch. The charge for each was five dollars.

These pony riders had to be fearless and strong, ready by night or by day, no matter how cold or stormy the weather, to leap into the saddle and dash forward. Sometimes they sped over the level plains; sometimes along a narrow, zigzag trail over steep and treacherous mountains. Often hostile Indians beset their path, but the steadfast pony rider did not falter. Faithful to duty and heedless of personal safety, he rushed his horse forward like the wind.

The Pony Express.

The schedule time for carrying a letter over the entire route was ten days, though this was cut to some hours less than eight days. The distance covered each day of twenty-four hours was not far from 250 miles, about twice the distance that the stage-coach travelled.

After eighteen months of continuous service the pony express gave place to the overland telegraph, which was established in 1861.

"BUFFALO BILL," BOY RIDER FOR THE PONY EXPRESS, BECOMES THE MOST FAMOUS OF WESTERN SCOUTS

The most famous of all the pony riders was William F. Cody, who, in later life, became known as "Buffalo Bill." Perhaps most American boys have thought of him as a swaggering, mounted cowboy of circus side-show fame, or at best as the hero of a dime novel walking out of its pages alive. We should, however, think of him as one of our highest types of Western plainsmen.

When we become acquainted with the facts of his life, we learn that he was the last person in the world to see any romance in his own career. For many years, beginning with his boyhood days, he was just a plain, anxious worker. During all this time he was doing so many hard, dangerous, and mostly ill-paid jobs, and was thinking so much of the people he was trying to help, that he had no time to play the stage-hero, and no desire to display himself. As a boy he was grave, patient, loyal, and unselfish in duty; as a man he was so soft-hearted that he could not shoot a deer that looked him in the eye.

He was born in Iowa in the year the Mexican War began (1846), and when he was seven his father started for the gold-fields of California. The family got no farther than Kansas; and here, a few years later, the father died.

At the tender age of eleven, William, already skilful in shooting, riding, and herding cattle, took a job on a train

of freight-wagons going west. It is very interesting to note, as a sidelight on his character, that, of his own motion, he signed a pledge to his employer not to swear or quarrel.

After five years of freighting and trapping, and some exciting adventures with the Indians, he caught the gold fever and started for the diggings. On his way he met with an agent of his old employers, who were starting the pony-express line of which we have just read. As the boy of fourteen had made such an enviable record in what he had already done, he was given a rider-ship at what was then thought to be good pay.

Buffalo Bill as Scout.

William Cody knew the job called for the vigor, endurance, and hardihood of a full-grown man, and that his life would be in constant danger. For, as the riders carried valuable money packages, Indians and white outlaws alike at times made a business of ambushing lonely and wild places along the route. They left only dead men behind them.

On one of his runs a highwayman "got the drop" on him and began to untie the saddle-bags; but Cody dug his heels into his horse, which reared and kicked the robber in the head. Then he tied his man and took him to the end of the run.

When he was fifteen the Civil War broke out, and he wanted to enlist; but his mother exacted a promise that he would not do this during her life. So he again joined the pony express and made a wonderful and startling record. He rode 85 miles for a mortally wounded rider in addition to his own beat, making a continuous ride of 322 miles in twenty-two hours. This was the longest ride ever made on the pony express.

In November, 1863, he enlisted as a private in the Union army. Serving at one time as a spy and at another as a scout, he had many narrow escapes from death, and was commended for "conspicuous bravery and valuable service upon the field."

BUFFALO BILL RETURNS TO THE PLAINS

After the war he returned to the plains again, this time driving stages over a dangerous route. Again Indians and desperate white outlaws gave him almost his last shrift, but always by his wit and energy he escaped.

He married in 1866 at the age of twenty, and after some unsuccessful business ventures on his own account, he took up scouting under Custer and became his trusted friend. Scouting was much more than watching for Indians; it was often finding them when it was too late to retreat, and risking a horrible death; it was also helping to reclaim stolen horses and rounding them up for capture.

Later Cody went to work for the Kansas Pacific Railroad, agreeing to supply buffalo meat, a dozen buffaloes a day, at $500 a month. This was the first really good pay he had ever had. He soon established a name as the most skilful hunter in that part of the country, riding bareback and killing his animal as the horse ranged alongside. Thus he acquired his nickname of "Buffalo Bill."

Buffalo Bill in His Wild West Show in Later Days.

While Cody was active on the plains Sheridan was commander of the United States troops in the Department of the Missouri, and he appointed Cody chief of scouts for the Fifth Cavalry. A year later Cody was appointed chief of all scouts in the Department of the Platte, with the rank of colonel. Without his being aware of it, Colonel Cody—"Buffalo Bill"—had come to be a national hero.

One day he was asked to act in a play to be written around him as the star. At first he would not hear of it;

but, flattered and coaxed, he finally yielded. Even in consenting, his two leading ideas were to build up a comfortable home at last for his beloved family, and to make a collection of genuine scenes showing the traits of the West.

How the Wild West show was set going and made him rich and world-famous is no part of our story. Our only wish is to show how this sincere, modest, hard-working, dutiful frontiersman grew to be one of the most celebrated men of his time; by what services and experiences he was moulded; and how well he deserved his fame. It is not the least of America's merits that she can produce and develop such manly and generous characters, who are just as truly knights as any Bayard of the days of chivalry. No more vivid figure than "Buffalo Bill" can be found among our pathfinders to the West.

Some Things to Think About

1. Imagine yourself a traveller on the stage-coach and tell about your experience on the route from St. Louis to Sacramento. How long did it take to make the journey?
2. What advantages did the pony express have over the stage-coach?
3. What dangers and hardships did the riders have to meet?
4. In what ways did the life of the plainsman resemble that of the backwoodsman of Kentucky and Tennessee? In what ways was the plainsman's life very different?
5. How did "Buffalo Bill" become famous, and how do you estimate his work?

IV

BUILDERS OF THE PACIFIC RAILROADS DARE MUCH TO REALIZE A GREAT DREAM

A step connecting the East with the Far West was taken by Congress in 1862 when it authorized the building of a Pacific railroad. It was to begin at Omaha, Nebraska, and extend to San Francisco, on the Pacific coast.

Two companies took up the enterprise. In 1863 the Central Pacific Company, of California, began building at the western end, and two years later the Union Pacific started to build from the east.

The progress of the Central Pacific for a time was slow, during the first three years advancing eastward only twenty miles a year. There were several reasons for this. It was not easy to get iron rails, which had to be brought by way of Panama or Cape Horn; much of the western end of the line passed over mountains, adding to the difficulty of building; and as California was a new country there was a scarcity of labor. Not until 1865, when Chinese coolies were imported, was the work of building speeded up.

Soon after the construction of the Union Pacific was begun the railroad from the East reached Council Bluffs, and all the building material, including iron, stone, and wood, was brought by rail. The actual work of building was easy, too, for since the route largely followed the

Oregon trail across the level country of the Great Plains, little had to be done to make the road-bed ready for the rails.

Most of the workers were newly arrived Irish immigrants and veterans of the Civil War. The soldiers were most useful, for much of the route passed through wild country where there were hostile Indians, and sometimes it was necessary to beat off surprise attacks.

The builders had to solve one hard problem which at first we might not think of, and that was the handling, housing, and feeding of thousands of workmen, for there were no large settlements on the route where supplies could be bought. But as fast as the road was built, it was put into use up to the point reached in construction, and every few weeks at the end of the line a mushroom town for housing and feeding the working men was set up. A long train of freight-cars would bring frame houses, tents, and furniture, and then in a few hours the new living centre would be ready for use.

Both the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific received from the United States Government thousands of acres of public land for every mile along the route, besides the loan of many million dollars in the form of government bonds.

During the last sixteen months the two companies worked with all possible speed, the average length of track laid by both being two and one-half miles for every working day.

The two groups of builders met near Ogden, Utah, on May 9, 1869, where the roads were joined together with appropriate ceremonies on the following day.

On May 10 the last two rails were fastened by a spike of gold driven into a tie of California laurel. The event was a national one. It was celebrated in many cities and towns throughout the country. In Chicago there was a procession seven miles in length; in New York 100 guns were fired and a thanksgiving service was held in Trinity Church; in Philadelphia the old Liberty Bell rang out the glad news to the people; and in Buffalo many enthusiastic voices joined in singing "The Star-Spangled Banner."

Driving the Last Spike of the Union Pacific—Promontory Point, Utah, May 10, 1869.

The East was joined to the West with bands never to be broken, and the journey from the Mississippi to the Pacific coast, which had taken twenty-two or twenty-three days to make by stage-coach, could now be made in a

few days by easy and comfortable travel. The transcontinental railroad marked the beginning of a new era in the life of the nation.

JAMES J. HILL, BUILDER OF THE GREAT NORTHERN RAILWAY, IS A MAN OF KEEN VISION AND HIGH IDEALS

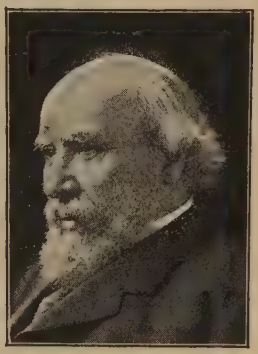
Within fifteen years other trans-Mississippi railroads were built, including the Southern Pacific and the Northern Pacific, the latter being completed in 1883. Ten years later still another was finished by a man who takes high rank among our American leaders. This was James J. Hill, who built the Great Northern. It is well worth while for you to make his acquaintance.

He was born on a farm in western Ontario in 1838. As a boy he went to a country school, but was so eager to learn that he read and studied at home, just as Lincoln did, such books as the Bible, Shakespeare, Burns, and a dictionary. Later he went to a good academy and had for a teacher a large-minded Quaker, who not only inspired him with noble ideals but gave him a love of great literature, which he never lost. Throughout his life books were his constant friends.

When a boy of eighteen he had such a strong desire to see the Far East that he started to work his way there. Running short of funds, he took a place for a few months as shipping-clerk for a down-river steamer line at St. Paul, then a small frontier town. This was no mere office job.

He had to oversee all outgoing and incoming freight, and often to handle it in person. He had to push hard for new business as well as learn and manage all parts of a varied commerce.

Both his heart and his brain went into the work, and for nine years he made no outward change in his life, but his experience was making him one of the most thorough masters of all time of frontier trade and transportation.



James J. Hill.

In 1865, when he was twenty-seven, he went into business for himself, as forwarder and general contractor, and soon became chief agent for all the best packet lines.

In 1878, in company with three other men, he got control of the St. Paul and Pacific Railroad, then running not far to the west from the Mississippi. Through his enterprise it was extended, and the new line, connecting St. Paul and Lake Superior with Seattle and the Pacific coast, was called the Great Northern. It was completed in 1893. Then branch roads were built to the north and the south at various points along the main route, and a steamship-line was established to China and Japan.

The Great Northern led to the rapid settlement of Minnesota and the Dakotas; it also greatly aided the building

up of Oregon and Washington as well as the entire Pacific slope.

No one could have foretold when the first Pacific railroad was authorized by Congress in 1862 that before the close of the century one of our great masters of industry would link our transportation system with the fabled cities of the Far East. Here was the completion of that great trade route to the Indies which has never ceased to engage the imagination of men.

Hill contributed much to the settlement of the Northwest, not only by his railroads but also as a pioneer in encouraging better farming, better breeds of stock, and better seeds. He established model farms, for by that time it had been found that the wealth of the great Northwest was not so much in its mines as in its fertile soil.

Some Things to Think About

1. Between what two cities did the first Pacific railroad extend? What part was built by the Central Pacific Company and what part by the Union Pacific Company?
2. What advantages did the Pacific railroads have over the stage-coach and the pony express?
3. How did the work of James J. Hill help the people of the Northwest?
4. Why has he been called an "Empire Builder"?
5. Indicate on the map the location of the railroads to the Pacific coast.
6. What did the building of these roads mean to the United States?

CHAPTER XXVI

LEADERS AND WORKERS IN THE GREAT WEST

I

THE COWBOY IS THE PICTURESQUE FIGURE AMONG THE SHEEP AND CATTLE RANCHERS

Some years before the railroad brought the full tide of migration to the West, the plains supported roving millions of cattle and sheep. Those were the days of the dashing cowboys, with their broad-brimmed hats, and bright-colored handkerchiefs tied loosely about the neck. Many of the cowboys and the ranchmen were men who had first tried their luck at gold-digging without success. Later other men joined them from the East, attracted by the wild, free life of the plains.

As you will learn in your study of geography, a wide belt, stretching westward from about the one hundredth meridian to the foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains, is arid land—that is, the rainfall is very light. It includes parts of Texas, Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado.

Although these dry plains will not produce corn or wheat without irrigation, they have a sufficient growth of

grass to feed millions of cattle and sheep. At first the ranchman lived on a small ranch, sometimes only forty acres in area, while his herds grazed on enormous stretches of public land with the herds of other ranchmen.

Every year when spring came one of the duties of the cowboys was to round up the cattle by driving them to a central point where the calves were branded, for each owner knew his herds by a special brand.

Between 1885 and 1890 a great change came in the cattle industry, caused by a boom in Western land. Many men in the East and the Middle West applied to the government for 160-acre farms, in accordance with an act passed by Congress some years before; and thousands determined to "go West," hoping to better their conditions of living.

Some of the farms were on land that could be irrigated. But even the land that could not be irrigated would produce alfalfa and Kaffir-corn, which needed less moisture than wheat or corn. It would also produce the usual crops by improved methods of cultivation.

The free public land disappeared. The ranchman now had to own or lease the land upon which his cattle grazed, and the free public range gave place to the individual owner's ranch.

On a well-equipped modern ranch to-day stands the home of the owner, which has all modern improvements. It is usually built on the banks of a stream or in a grove of trees, with barns, sheds, and corral near by. In summer the cattle

graze in fields, which are enclosed by a barbed-wire fence, while the owner with his helpers cultivates crops of hay, alfalfa, and possibly wheat or corn on other parts of the ranch.

A good ranch equipment must include harvesting-

From a drawing by Will James.

The Picturesque Cowboy No Longer Finds a Place in the Ranch Life of the Plains.

machines, work-horses, and saddle-horses, and also automobiles for service and for pleasure.

It is evident that the round-up of earlier days, when the herds grazed in common on the public land, is no longer necessary; and railroads are so numerous that the drive of perhaps 300 or 400 miles to the shipping-station is now unknown. It is evident also that the picturesque cowboy no longer finds a place in the ranch life of the plains. His every-day work is that of a farmer.

But while the cowboy has disappeared, cattle-raising is still one of the great industries of the country. In 1922 there were more than 67,000,000 cattle in the United States.

SOME THINGS TO THINK ABOUT

1. Can you explain why the dry plains were used by ranchmen to feed cattle and sheep instead of by farmers to raise grain?
2. Why did the free public land disappear, and what effect did this have upon the work of the ranchman?
3. Tell all you can about a modern ranch and the work that is done there.

II

THE HOMESTEADER EXPANDS THE CORN BELT AND THE WHEAT REGION

Up to the time of the Civil War, settlers upon the public domain had to pay the government for land. But in 1862 Congress passed the Homestead Act. Under this law any citizen who was twenty-one years old or more, or any one of that age who had declared his intention of being made a citizen, could become the owner of 160 acres of land by paying only a small entry fee, if he would agree to reside on the land for five years.

This invitation to go out and settle the vast trans-Mississippi regions was eagerly accepted, and there followed a great tide of home-seekers from the East and the Middle West, as already mentioned, and also from Europe.

Part of the throng went to what is now the corn belt of the trans-Mississippi region, including Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas, and parts of Kansas and Nebraska and other states, and the cultivation of corn rapidly increased, add-

ing much to the national wealth. Corn is now our largest crop; between two and a half and three billion bushels are produced each year.

Others who went West settled in Minnesota, the Dakotas, and those states which have since become the great

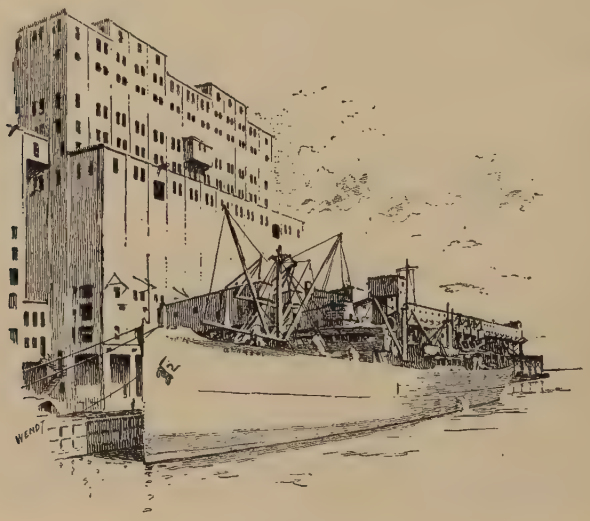
A Combined Harvester and Thresher.

wheat-producing region of the country. In Minnesota, the largest wheat-producing state of our day, the big "bonanza" farms range in size from 2,000 to 10,000 acres. Some are so large that one cannot look entirely across them —so large indeed that laborers working on opposite sides do not see one another for months at a time.

For the harvesting of wheat a great deal of new machinery is purchased every year. One of the huge machines can cut and stack in one day the grain from a hundred acres.

After the wheat is threshed it may be taken in railroad-

cars to such cities as Duluth, St. Paul, Minneapolis, or Chicago, and stored in great buildings known as grain-



A Grain-Elevator.

elevators. Some elevators can store as much as a million or more bushels each. In 1922 this country produced 818,000,000 bushels of wheat.

Some Things to Think About

1. Why did the Homestead Act lead to the expansion of the corn belt and the wheat region?
2. Why are the wheat-crop and the corn-crop important?
3. Point out on the map the states of the corn belt; also those of the wheat-growing regions.

III

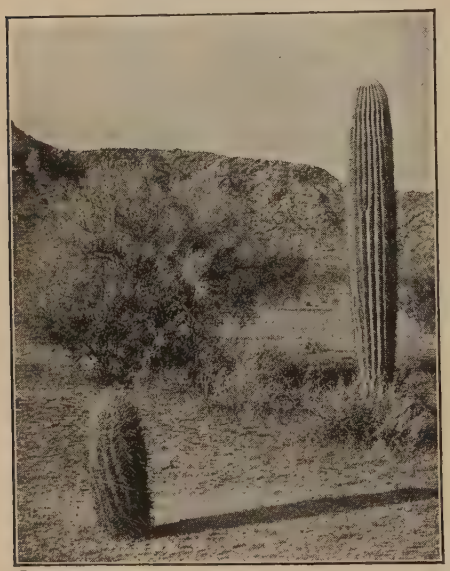
JOHN WESLEY POWELL ENCOURAGES IRRIGATION IN THE FAR WEST

If you had gone to school in any year between 1850 and 1860, you would have been told that the land stretching west from the great bend of the Missouri River to the Rocky Mountains and farther westward to the Sierra Nevada Mountains was called the "Great American Desert," for this vast area was thought to be too arid to support a farming population. Now we know that it was so only in name. People believed it to exist because they did not know the facts.

For our first true knowledge of the region we are indebted to John Wesley Powell, who was a soldier as well as a man of science. He had been an enthusiastic explorer of the West, and succeeded Clarence King as director of the United States Geological Survey. In his report of 1879 he recorded facts of wonderful value. He had learned from his own observation that there were vast plains and valleys in the Rockies, covered with cactus and sage-brush, that needed only water to make them richly productive. He represented that, if these countless acres of arid lands were irrigated freely, they would be fertile and thus provide prosperous homes for millions of American citizens.

Enterprising men took up the suggestion and began to

develop irrigation projects. There were different ways of irrigating. Sometimes water would be diverted from rivers and made to run in canals and ditches through the fields of fruit-trees or growing crops. In other cases reservoirs might be built to hold back the water that came from melting snows on the tops and sides of the mountains. By means of flumes, canals, and ditches the water could be distributed to land at great distances. Thus what was once a wild waste could be made to bear abundant harvests.



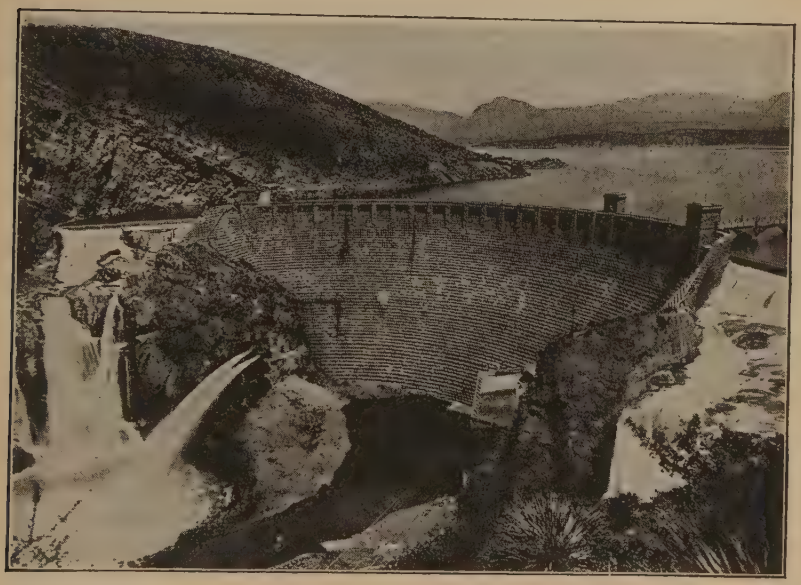
© *Ewing Galloway.*

Cactus in the Arizona Desert, Now a Fertile Country Through Irrigation.

In order to stimulate the development of irrigation projects the Carey Act was passed in 1894. In this act Congress offered any state in the arid region 1,000,000 acres of public land if it would reclaim and settle it. Some states accepted the offer and gave private companies the rights to irrigate the land and sell it to settlers.

But the task was too large for either private or state enterprise, and in 1902 Congress passed the Reclamation

Act. It provided that 95 per cent of all the money received from the sale of public lands should be used in developing new irrigation projects in various parts of the arid region.



Roosevelt Dam, Salt River Valley, Arizona.

These projects now include the Roosevelt Dam, on the Salt River, in Arizona; the Arrow Rock Dam and Twin Falls Project, in Idaho; the Huntley, Milk River, and Sun River projects, in Montana; the Shoshone Dam, in Wyoming; and the Gunnison Project, in Colorado.

Over thirteen million acres of land have in this way been made highly productive. To-day thousands of prosperous farming communities and hundreds of beautiful

villages and towns exist, where twenty-five years ago only sage-brush and the cactus-plant were growing.

Some Things to Think About

1. What were the eastern and the western boundaries of this immense area of land which was for a long time called "The American Desert"?
2. Who was John Wesley Powell, and what important facts did he bring to light?
3. What is irrigation? Explain the ways in which dry land is irrigated.
4. What was the Carey Act? Name and locate some important irrigation projects.
5. What good results have come from irrigating the dry land of the West?

IV

The Warlike Indian Disappears from the Western Plains; Also Millions of Buffaloes

The great tides of population that followed the development of the railroad and the irrigation of arid lands completely changed the order of life on the Great Plains. They put an end to the roving bands of warlike Indians and completely swept away the immense herds of buffaloes.

By 1820 the westward movement, as we have seen, had reached the meridian passing through the great bend in the Missouri River. For the next thirty years no further advance was made toward the Pacific except in the centres of population that had grown up in California and Oregon.

One reason why settlers did not venture farther west was the fear of the American Desert, of which we have just

spoken. Another was the fear of the Indians, who made travel so dangerous along any of the well-worn trails.

The Indians, in turn, feared that the white men would deprive them of their hunting-grounds, for every time prospectors discovered new mines of gold or silver a rush of people followed, putting a check on the wild, free life of the plains. This became a fruitful cause of war in the later period of Western settlement, just as it had always been whenever a new frontier was passed. There were several of these conflicts.

An Indian Frontier Trading-Post.

An unhappy instance followed the discovery of gold in the Black Hills of North Dakota in 1876. These gold-fields were in a reservation which the United States Government had set a part for the use of the powerful Sioux Indians, and when the gold prospectors, allowing no barrier to hold them back, began to dig for gold in land which these Indians looked upon as their own, they prepared to defend their ground.

The war that followed cost the lives of many white men. One of the most disastrous engagements was the massacre

of 260 troopers under the brave and dashing General Custer. Surrounded by ten or twelve times their own number, they made a stout resistance, but all were killed, including Custer. The only one to escape was a half-breed Crow scout.

Indian Hunting Buffalo.

This was the last important Indian war. The red men had fought hard and bravely in defense of their hunting-grounds, but their power had been much weakened when the great herds of buffaloes disappeared. For the buffaloes supplied food and clothing, and also hides for the Indian's lodge, harness for his horse and his dog, and sinews for his bowstrings.

When the early settlements were made in Virginia and the other English colonies, buffaloes in countless numbers roamed over almost all of what is now the United States. By 1830 they had been driven westward beyond the Mississippi. Even as late as 1870 there were many millions of them on the Great Plains. In 1868 General Sheridan and his escort spent three days in riding through a great herd

of the big, shaggy beasts, and in the following years a Kansas-Pacific train ran for 120 miles through an almost unbroken stretch of them.

The Indians killed hundreds of thousands of these animals every year, and hunters and trappers killed many more. After the building of the Pacific railroad it was much easier for the white man to reach the buffalo country, and many Eastern hide-hunters slaughtered them in great numbers, taking the hides back home to be made into "buffalo robes." It is said that in three years—1872, 1873, 1874—3,000,000 were slaughtered for this purpose, and that during this time the number killed was probably 5,000,000. By 1878 only a few scattered herds remained anywhere in the country.

The passing of the buffalo along with the passing of the Indian left the white man in control of the vast trans-Mississippi region.

Some Things to Think About

1. For thirty years after 1820 the westward movement halted. Why?
2. Explain a fruitful cause of war with the Indians in the later period of Western settlement. Tell all you can about the massacre of General Custer and his men.
3. In what ways were the buffaloes destroyed and what effect did their destruction have upon the life of the Indians on the Western plains?
4. Do you think the Indians have been treated fairly by the white men?

CHAPTER XXVII

TWO LEADERS IN THE POLITICAL LIFE OF THE NATION AT THE CLOSE OF THE CENTURY

I

GROVER CLEVELAND AS A POLITICAL LEADER IS A MAN OF COURAGE

RETURNING now from the Great Plains and mountain regions of the Far West, we will follow the story of those great American leaders whose lives must help us all to be more loyal to our country and more earnest in giving it our best service. One of these men is Grover Cleveland.

He was born at Caldwell, New Jersey, March 18, 1837, the son of a Presbyterian minister. When a boy he showed unusual qualities of mind and heart, and his father wished to send him to college. But the father died when Grover was fourteen, and he took a job in a grocery-store to help his widowed mother.

Instead of feeling sorry for himself, this lad made the experience a means of growth. In later manhood he said it taught him how to deal with men, to appreciate their points of view and their motives, and to adapt his own actions to them. While selling goods in the grocery-store he was learning how to play a game that was far more diffi-

cult and important than baseball or football, and that was the game of life.

Perhaps, also, helping to support his widowed mother and their large family made Grover stronger in purpose and in character. To those who knew him he certainly seemed much older than his age. We learn, too, that, while always faithful to his daily tasks, he was an earnest reader. He liked history better than anything else, although he enjoyed Byron and Moore, and could repeat from memory thousands of lines of their poetry.

Grover Cleveland.

When he was eighteen his uncle persuaded him to take a place as clerk in a law office in Buffalo, and after four years' practice as a lawyer he began his public career as assistant district attorney. In 1870 he was elected sheriff of the county, and in 1881 mayor of Buffalo.

As mayor he was so fearless and energetic in performing his public duties that his rise in public favor was rapid; he was elected governor of the State of New York in 1882, and President of the United States in 1884.

When he entered the White House, in 1885, wishing to leave no doubt in the public mind of his serious purpose to serve the interests of the people, he said: "Public office

is a public trust," and he held to this motto throughout his notable public career.

He was President for two terms, the first being 1885–1889, and the second 1893–1897. During both of his administrations he had to meet important problems, which we need not discuss now; you will learn about them later. They included the tariff, money questions, and labor problems.

President Cleveland believed that a high protective tariff was not a good thing for the country, and declared himself in favor of a low tariff. He also advocated the single, or "gold," standard as a basis of value for money.

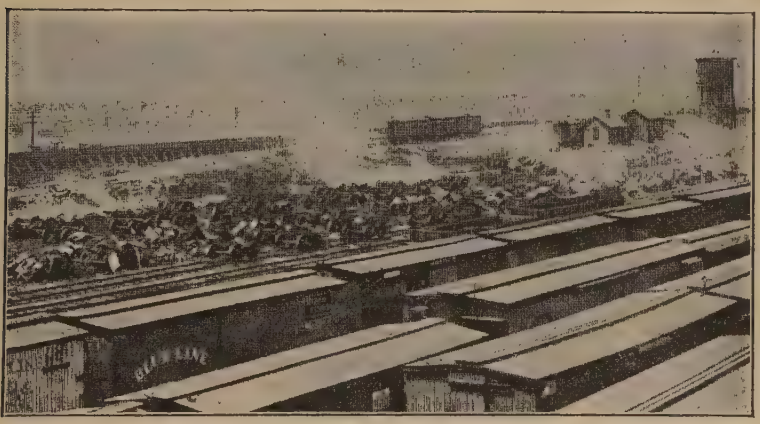
He was slow in forming a judgment on any of these questions, but when he had decided what course of action he should follow as a servant of the people, he was fearless in pursuing it, whatever the effect might be upon his own political future.

His courage met with a severe test in the case of the Chicago railway strike, in 1894. This began in the works of the Pullman Car Company, when the wages of the workers were reduced. The strike spread so widely that the railroads were "tied up" all over the country. Much property was wrecked or burned; many men were killed or injured. The trouble centred in Chicago, where there were destructive riots.

When this strike began seriously to hinder the United States mails, it became national in interest, and the President believed it his duty to interfere. He said: "If it takes

every dollar in the Treasury and every soldier in the United States army to deliver a postal card in Chicago, that postal card shall be delivered." Soldiers were sent to Chicago to protect the mails and to stop the rioting and disorder, and the strike was broken.

Upon leaving the White House, Cleveland became trus-



Cars Were Burned and Destroyed During the Chicago Railway Strike.

tee and lecturer for Princeton University, making his home in Princeton, New Jersey. He took an active interest in the student body, often giving money to help students who were working their way through college.

He was fond of little children and of young people of all ages. Sometimes he would give a whole day to mending the toys of his small friends.

He was earnest in whatever he undertook, even in his

recreation. As a fisherman he would sit for hours in his skiff, forgetful of heat or cold or rain, waiting for a bite. He was simply putting into practice a motto which was his constant guide: "Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well."

When nearing the end of his life, he said: "I have tried so hard to do right." Guided by that steady purpose he left a worthy example for young Americans to study.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell what you can about the boyhood of Grover Cleveland. How did he learn to play the game of life?
2. Why was he able to rise so rapidly in public favor?
3. What was his motto when he was President? What did he mean by it?
4. How did he show his courage at the time of the railway strike in 1894?

II

William McKinley Helps the Cubans to Gain Their Freedom

Following Cleveland's second term as President of the United States, William McKinley came into office. The most important event of his administration was the war with Spain. He faced the national situation with firmness, although without question he was a man of peace.

He was born at Niles, Ohio, in 1843, the seventh of nine children. His father was an ironmaster, and early

in life William became interested in the ores of his state and in its manufactures. What he learned led to his making a special study later of the tariff problem.

At seventeen he went to college, but before the end of his first year he returned home on account of poor health, and then took up teaching in a near-by town.

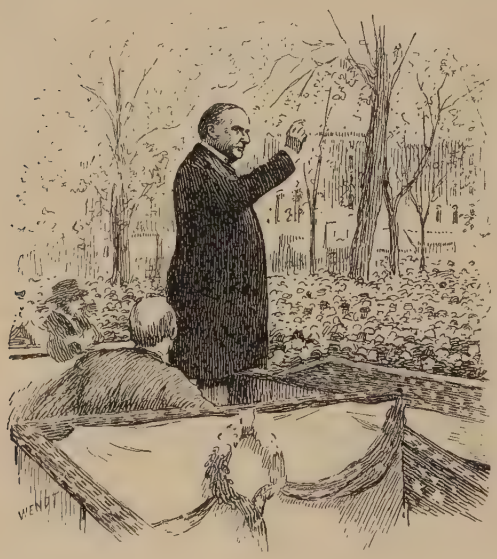
Almost immediately the Civil War began, and he was one of the first boys of his town to enlist for three years in the Twenty-third Ohio Volunteers. Although so young and in poor health, from his very first engagement he commanded the attention and the respect of his officers. By the end of the war he had been promoted to the rank of major. That was an unusual record for a young man of twenty-two.

After the war he studied law, and a year later was admitted to the bar, settling in Canton, Ohio. In 1876 he was elected to Congress by the Republican party and served continuously for fourteen years. As leader of his party on the tariff question, he was appointed chairman of the committee which drafted the McKinley Tariff Bill. This was a highly protective measure and was passed by Congress.

After serving two terms as governor of Ohio, in 1897 he became President of the United States. In fulfilling the duties of his high office, he was honest and fearless; and this was especially true in the war with Spain, which began during the second year of his administration.

THE CUBANS RISE AGAINST SPAIN

The trouble with Spain grew out of her treatment of the people in Cuba. From the time of Columbus she had ruled the natives cruelly, and many times they had risen in rebellion. In 1895 there was an uprising that Spain could not put down. She sent over a governor-general who tried to starve the Cubans into submission. He burned the homes of the farmers who supplied food to the Cuban army, and drove them into towns and cities. By such inhuman treatment he not only weakened the army but put great suffering upon civilians, who had no way of getting food. Thousands died, yet the Cubans would not yield. Their cry was: "We will win our freedom or die!"



President McKinley at Quincy, Ill.
"Whenever the Flag is assailed, the only terms we ever make with its assailant is unconditional surrender."

This cruel warfare, going on so close to our shores,

aroused our people, and as the war grew even more brutal, our government tried to induce Spain to bring it to an end. Before anything could be arranged, however, an American war-ship, the Maine, was blown up in the harbor of Havana, and 260 of our officers and seamen were killed. This happened on the night of February 15, 1898.

Many believed that it was the work of Spanish officials. The report of a naval court of inquiry after careful investigation showed that the ship was blown up by an explosion from the outside, but did not fix the blame. Americans were bitter in their resentment toward Spain. Feeling ran high. President McKinley did all he could to keep peace, but on April 25, 1898, war was formally declared by Congress.

COMMODORE DEWEY WINS A BRILLIANT VICTORY OVER THE SPANISH FLEET AT MANILA BAY

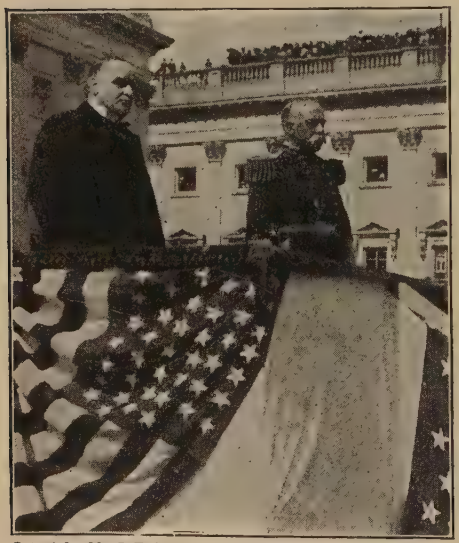
Two days later, an American fleet of six war-vessels, under Commodore Dewey, steamed from a Chinese port southward toward the Philippine Islands, then a Spanish possession. In Manila Bay he totally destroyed the Spanish fleet in an engagement which lasted but a few hours. Dewey's war-vessels were not seriously injured, and no American sailor's life was lost.

The brilliant victory, largely due to the rapid handling of the guns and the accurate marksmanship of the American seamen, thrilled the country. Congress voted $10,000 for

a sword to be presented to Commodore Dewey and medals to his men, and the President advanced Commodore Dewey to the rank of rear-admiral.

CERVERA'S FLEET IS "BOTTLED UP" AT SANTIAGO AND DESTROYED

After the Spanish fleet at Manila was destroyed, there was no longer danger of attack from Spanish war-vessels on our Pacific coast; but news came that the Spanish fleet under Cervera, which had been stationed at the Cape Verde Islands, was sailing toward Cuba.



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President McKinley and Admiral Dewey Reviewing the Soldiers and Sailors from the Steps of the Capitol.

Presently Admiral Cervera arrived at Santiago, and an American fleet under the command of Commodore Schley blockaded the harbor to prevent his escape. Under the leadership of Richmond P. Hobson, a daring but unsuccessful attempt was promptly made to block the escape of the Spanish fleet by sinking a collier in the narrow channel leading to the

harbor. While our fleet kept close watch at the harbor entrance, an American army arrived at Santiago to attack the city. On the 1st of July the Americans made a gallant advance through tropical forests upon its outworks, and won a decisive victory. It was in this battle that the "Rough Riders," under Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, won distinction by great bravery.

American Troops Embarking for Santiago.

The Spanish fleet now made a dash for liberty. At about half past nine on Sunday morning (July 3) the foremost Spanish war-vessel was seen heading at full speed out of the harbor. When the American sailors saw what was going on they sent up a loud shout: "The Spanish fleet is coming out!" Then leaping to their places at the guns, every man eager to do his turn, they waited with breathless interest the order to fire. Victory was easy and complete, due to the superior seamanship of the Americans and their mastery of the guns. Every one of the Spanish war-vessels was destroyed, 600 Spaniards were killed, and 1,800 were captured. Not one American ship was seriously injured, while but one Ameri-

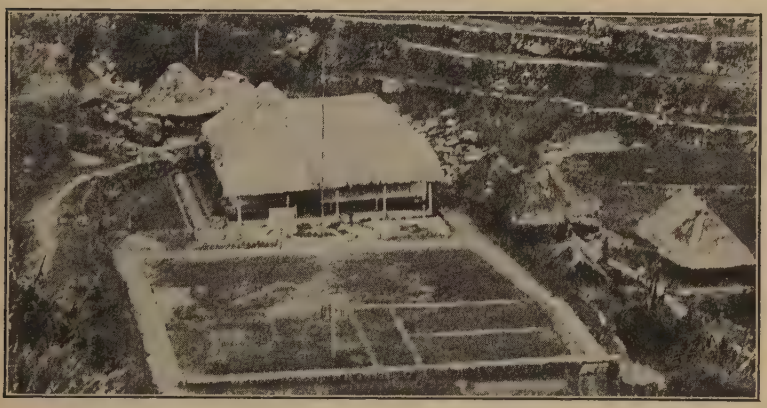
can sailor was killed. With nothing to hope for from the fleet, about the middle of July Santiago and the Spanish army surrendered to the American forces.

Judge Day, Secretary of State, Signing the Peace Protocol Between the United States and Spain, August 12, 1898.

AS A RESULT OF THE WAR CUBA IS LIBERATED AND THE UNITED STATES ACQUIRES NEW TERRITORY

Spain accepted her defeat and was now willing to arrange terms of peace. On February 6, 1899, a treaty was ratified by the United States Senate, in which Spain gave up all claim to Cuba, and ceded Porto Rico and Guam, a little island in the Ladrones, to the United States. She

also ceded the Philippine Islands, in return for which we agreed to pay her $20,000,000.



An American Public School for Native Children in a Rural District of the Phillipine Islands.

One of the most noteworthy results of the war was the drawing together of the various sections of our country into closer sympathy and union. Never before had the North, the South, the East, and the West felt so closely bound together in thought, feeling, and purpose.

Some Things to Think About

1. What training did William McKinley have to fit him for the presidency?
2. Why did the Cubans rise against Spain? Why was it natural that our country should champion the cause of Cuban independence?
3. Why did we go to war with Spain?
4. Tell all you can about the two naval battles in wnich our boys destroyed two Spanish fleets.
5. What were the most important results of the war?

CHAPTER XXVIII

LEADERS IN A NEW WORLD OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

I

THOMAS A. EDISON IS "THE WIZARD" OF THE ELECTRICAL WORLD

MANY influences have been at work to put our nation in a position of power among the nations of the world. That position has come about not alone through great material wealth but through many scientific inventions.

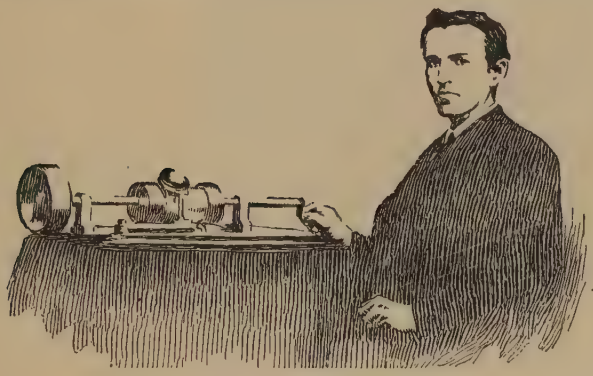
The age we live in is far different from that of our forefathers, and just as we revere their memory for winning our political freedom, so we must bow with respect to the great inventors of a later generation. They have freed us from the limitations of time and space, and have made us realize that we are living in an age of marvellous scientific achievement.

Many inventions that have greatly increased men's control of time and space and multiplied the comforts of their daily living have been worked out through the application of electricity. In developing these inventions no one has done so much as Thomas A. Edison, who has been called "the wizard" of the electrical world.

He was born in Milan, Ohio, on February 11, 1847, his

father being a farmer and also a dealer in grain and lumber. After sending Thomas to school for a few months, his mother, who had been a teacher before her marriage, decided to keep him at home and teach him herself; and that is all the teaching he ever received.

While he was yet a mere lad the family moved to Port

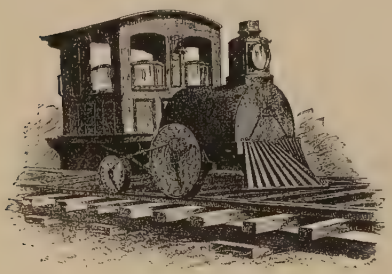


Thomas Edison and His First Phonograph.

Huron, and when he was twelve he became a newsboy on the train running from that town to Detroit. Having a quick mind, a ready wit, and a pleasant way of meeting people, his business grew, and he decided to enlarge it by publishing a paper. With a second-hand printing outfit in the end of a car intended for baggage, he set to work, and was so successful that his profits in a single year were about $600.

But even then this restless youngster was not satisfied. He was interested in chemistry, and got permission to set

up a laboratory in the same car in which he published his weekly paper. Here he had test-tubes, flasks, bottles, and various chemicals. But one day, when the car gave a lurch, a stick of phosphorus fell to the floor and broke into flames. This set the car on fire. The conductor was so angry that at the next station he threw out the whole outfit, laboratory and printing-press as well; and worse even than that, he boxed the boy's ears so soundly that Edison became deaf. He never recovered his hearing.



Edison's Menlo Park Electric Locomotive, 1880.

But another day brought better fortune. While the train was stopping at Mount Clemens, the station-agent's little boy, about two and one-half years old, was playing with pebbles and sand between the railroad-tracks. The child was so busy that he did not see an uncoupled car which was rapidly approaching. In two or three seconds he would have been killed had not young Edison, then about fifteen years old, quickly dropped the papers under his arm and rushed to the rescue just in time.

The station-agent felt so grateful that he offered to teach Edison how to operate the telegraph-keys, and also all that he himself knew about electricity. The offer was

eagerly accepted by the ambitious boy, who not only wished to be a telegraph operator but to understand how messages went over the wire.

By putting all his energy into the new task and working eighteen hours a day, within a year he was able to secure a position as telegraph operator. This was in 1863, when Edison was only sixteen.

Copyrighted by Keystone View Co.

Thomas Edison at Work in His Laboratory at Orange, N. J.

But his restless desire to experiment and to explore unknown fields kept him wandering during the next five years. He sought one position after another till, after a year in Boston in 1868, he arrived in New York.

All the time this born inventor was working to improve the telegraph, and not long after reaching New York he was amazed by an offer from the Western Union Telegraph Company of $40,000 for one of his patents. With the money thus received he was able to experiment on a larger scale, and to build up a manufacturing company of his own.

His two most important inventions were lighting by electricity and the electric railway. He was also the inventor of the phonograph and of motion-pictures. He has taken out more than 1,000 patents, more than any other inventor ever took out in this country.

When Edison was once asked what advice he would offer to those who wished to enter the field of invention, he answered: "The best advice I can give to a man who wants to be a successful inventor is to work twenty hours a day. That I did for thirty years, and I cannot see that it hurts me." Once, when making right some defective stock-printers to fill an order by a fixed date, he scarcely stopped to eat for a period of sixty hours, and during that time he neither rested nor slept. His great industry, strong body, and determination, added to a powerful imagination and inventive genius, account for his success. He is regarded as the greatest inventor of all time.

It would not be possible to measure the value of Edison's work; he has done marvellous things in his long and useful life.

Some Things to Think About

1. How have inventors helped to make our age different from preceding ages?
2. What kind of boy was Thomas A. Edison?
3. Name some of his important inventions, and explain how they have affected our ways of living.
4. Tell all you can about his working habits. According to his own words, what is the biggest factor toward success?
5. Try to estimate the value of Edison's inventions.

II

ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL INVENTS THE TELEPHONE AND TAKES THE LEAD IN PERFECTING THE INVENTION

Electricity has become a wonder-working agent in the service of mankind. It has been put to use in many ways and, as if by magic, has brought to pass things that would seem to be impossible.

One of the most remarkable inventions is the telephone, by which the sound of the voice is transmitted over an electric wire. The man whom we should remember as having done most to make the telephone successful is Alexander Graham Bell.

He was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, in 1847, and from childhood it was plain that nature had given him unusual gifts. He loved to study, and always wanted to know the "reason why" a thing was so.

Even in his boyish pranks he was thoughtful. One day the local miller, around whose mill he played with other boys, lost patience and said to the boys: "Why don't you think up something to help me instead of making trouble for me?"

When they asked what they could do to help, he showed them a handful of wheat, and hinted that it would be a good thing for them to find out some way to remove the husks.

Graham took some wheat home and found that with a

nail-brush the husks came off easily. He told the miller about it and persuaded him to put brushes inside a revolving drum, which was used for other purposes, and feed in the wheat. The husks came off; the invention was a success. At this time Graham was only twelve years old.

It used to interest him to watch his father, a teacher of elocution, as he cured people of stammering. He thus be-

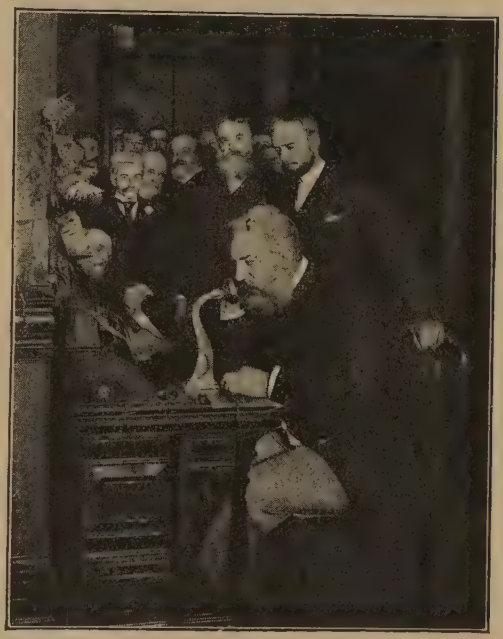
Courtesy of American Telephone & Telegraph Company.

On June 2, 1875, Alexander Graham Bell and His Assistant, Thomas A. Watson, During Some Experiments, Discovered the Principle of the Electric Speaking Telephone.

came familiar with the system of phonetics, or lip-reading, which his father invented and put into use, and he later taught the system in this country.

By the time he was twenty he had studied thoroughly the mouths and vocal organs of his father's pupils, and experimented with amusing results on his dog, which he trained to speak. By pressing certain muscles of its jaw and lips he made the dog say "ma-ma," "ga-ma-ma," and finally "Ow ah oo, ga-ma-ma," for "How are you, grandmama?" Visitors came from far away to listen to the talking dog.

When Graham was twenty-three, the family moved to Canada, and very soon he was appointed a teacher of deaf-mutes in Boston University, where he remained four years. By habit he continued to study and experiment for better methods in his work with the human voice.



The Inventor of the Telephone, Alexander Graham Bell, Opening the New York-Chicago Long Distance Telephone Line, October 18, 1892.

Then one day a great thought came to him. Why could not sound vibrations just as well as light or heat vibrations be carried by electric wires?

The idea was developed in a novel way. The father of one of Bell's pupils, who wished to assist him, made it possible for him to have a workshop in Salem, fifteen miles from Boston, where he carried on experiments at night for three years.

Thrilled with the idea of breaking a new path in the realm of science, he used to call up his friend at any hour of the night to test his signals. Each slight success

filled him with joy, and the failures only made him try harder.

Finally the telephone was finished in time to take its place in the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia in 1876. It attracted wide attention and was rapidly adopted. Within a few years it had a large use in business offices and homes, where it has proved of untold value. Talking by telephone between cities hundreds, or even thousands, of miles apart is now simple and easy.

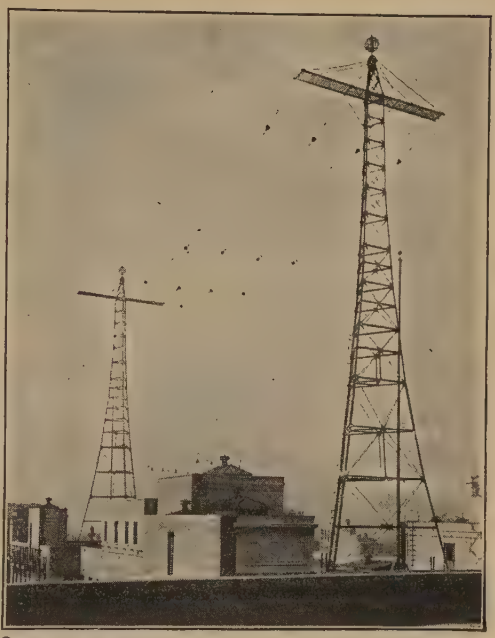
THE WIRELESS TELEGRAPH AND THE WIRELESS TELEPHONE ARE MAKING THE NATIONS OF THE WORLD CLOSE NEIGHBORS

Even more wonderful than messages by wire are messages by air without the aid of wires. This is possible both by the telegraph and the telephone. Wireless telegraphy was invented by Guglielmo Marconi, an Italian. Its successful operation was effected in 1896. Since that time it has been possible to have instant communication, without the use of wires, between places thousands of miles apart.

On January 18, 1903, from the wireless-telegraph station at Wellfleet, on Cape Cod, President Roosevelt sent to King Edward of England the first wireless message across the Atlantic. The first wireless-telephone message was sent across the Atlantic in 1915.

On November 11, 1921, the oration President Harding delivered in Arlington, Virginia, during the memorial services

at the burial of the Unknown Soldier of the World War, was heard distinctly in New York, Chicago, and other distant cities by great throngs of listening people. This was made possible by the use of amplifiers.



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Big Antennæ of a Radio Broadcasting Station on the Roof of a Building in One of Our Largest Cities.

From broadcasting wireless, or radio, stations various items of news are now sent to points hundreds of miles away. It is possible for any one having a wireless outfit to listen to whatever may be broadcast in far-distant cities.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell some interesting incidents in the boyhood of Alexander Graham Bell.
2. How did he make his dog talk?
3. What great thought came to him one day?
4. How has his invention affected our lives?
5. What is wireless telegraphy? Tell some of its uses.

III

HENRY FORD, INVENTOR AND BUILDER OF AUTOMOBILES, BECOMES A GREAT INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZER

Another invention to make us forget time and space is the automobile. Best known of those who have spent their lives in its invention and manufacture is Henry Ford.

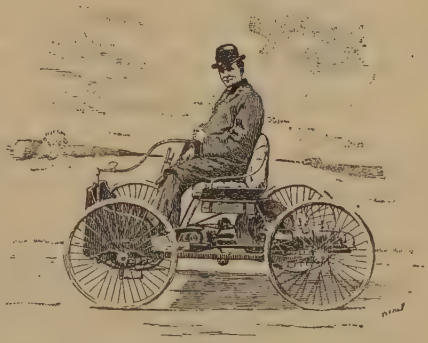
He was born on his father's farm near Greenfield, Michigan, July 30, 1863. His boyhood was in no way remarkable except that he was rather more interested in machinery and in making things than the other boys that he played with. He used to amuse himself by taking apart and putting together old watches and clocks, and fitted up a workshop where, out of odds and ends of iron and steel, he made a steam-engine which would actually go.

When he was sixteen his love of machinery was so much stronger than his interest in school, that one day he left suddenly and walked to Detroit, a distance of seven miles, in search of a job. He got one at once in a steam-engine company at wages of $2.50 a week, but as this did not pay his board, he went to work with a jeweller. He spent his evenings up to eleven o'clock repairing watches.

When he had been at this work about a year, he decided that he wanted to know something about marine engineering, and took a position with the Dry Dock Engine Works, where he proved an apt pupil and made friends.

But his thoughts were still busy with watches, and he

thought out a plan of making cheap ones in quantities large enough to sell at a good profit. He was on the point of organizing a company for that purpose, when he was called home by the illness of his father.



Ford and His First Automobile.

The father had always been out of sympathy with Henry's mechanical turn of mind, and urged him now to settle down to farming and make it his life-work. For a while all went well. The young fellow undertook the management of the farm, married one of the girls of the neighborhood, and seemed to have given up all his ambitions in the engineering field.

But while working on the farm he was still free to study evenings, and when one day he read that a Frenchman had invented a horseless carriage, he was seized by the old longing. The great desire to make such a car took complete control of him, and nothing else in his life was so important, as the possibilities of such an invention grew in his imagination.

He went to Detroit with the hope of getting some helpful ideas. While walking from the railroad-station he saw a steam-driven fire-engine laboring along the street, moving

slowly because of its weight; it had to carry so much water to generate the steam. This question at once came to him: Can some motive power other than steam be found for such a vehicle? Here was a problem worthy of his best effort. Gasolene, he came to believe, might be used as a driving force, and toward that end he planned all his experiments.

Interest in the farm now gave place to that of making a horseless carriage that would be practical. Wishing to learn more about electricity, he gave up the farm and again went to Detroit.

There he took a position with the Detroit Electric Company, and within a short time he had built a house in the suburbs with a workshop in the rear, where evenings, and all night every Saturday, he worked on his experiments.

After three years of ceaseless toil, in 1893 the day came when he finally completed his horseless carriage. It was about two o'clock in the morning, and raining, but impatient to know whether his car would run, he jumped in and started the engine. To his delight, it shot ahead, barely missing a clothes-pole, and went chug-chugging down the street. But he could not turn around while sitting in the car, and so he got out, lifted it around, and then went back home. With all its drawbacks, his invention was a success.

Henry Ford himself knew better than any one else how far from perfect his invention was, and for eight years he continued his experiments, handicapped constantly by lack

of funds. Meantime other men were making automobiles and entering races with them. Wishing to be in the field, he entered his car in one of these races, and it won. This success made friends for his enterprise, and he received offers of money to start the manufacture of his car.

But the new company did not succeed, because Ford and his

The Present Ford Motor Company at Detroit, Mich.
Above, Mr. Ford's First Factory.

backers did not agree in policy. They wished to build an expensive car at a large profit, while his dream had always been to manufacture cars at so low a cost that they could be sold in very large numbers, and thus make the business profitable. You remember his plan was the same for a cheap watch.

Ford was again thrown back upon his own resources. The years went on with little accomplished except in further experimenting, until a chance came to compete in another race in Detroit. The money for the car was advanced this time by two mechanics who were his friends. He put in a

four-cylinder engine, which was so powerful and unwieldy that for some time they could get no one who dared to drive it. At length a bicycle-racer was found who learned to drive the car in a few days. He entered the race and won by half a mile!

Again success resulted favorably. There was a demand for more cars, and Ford and his two friends formed in 1903 the Ford Motor Company. A small building was hired, and cars began to be turned out. Such was the beginning of the company that was in the future to manufacture millions of low-priced automobiles.

Now automobiles are used in almost countless numbers, for business and also for pleasure. They have become so helpful to us that it is hard to see how we could get along without them.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell all you can about the boyhood of Henry Ford.
2. How did he spend his evenings while working on the farm?
3. What question did he ask himself when he saw the steam-driven fire-engine laboring along the street?
4. Tell about the run down the street in his horseless carriage one rainy night.
5. The automobile was used only for pleasure not many years ago. How is it used now?

IV

THE WRIGHT BROTHERS LEAD THE WAY IN THE NAVIGATION OF THE AIR

The light weight of the gas-engine greatly aided in devising perhaps the most wonderful invention of all. This was the airplane, or flying-machine, with which the Wright brothers, of Dayton, Ohio, surprised the world in the early years of the present century. The story of their struggle, which ended in their mid-air flight of six miles and back in September, 1905, is a captivating one.

Orville and Wilbur Wright were the sons of a Moravian bishop living in Dayton, Ohio. He was a man of wide education, with so great a liking for mechanics that in the later years of his life he invented a typewriter. Their mother, a college woman, was of superior mind, and her family also were inclined toward mechanics.

The two boys, therefore, grew up in an intellectual yet practical atmosphere, and read all their father's books of science as well as others that they bought or borrowed. The older children of the family had been sent to college, but before Orville and Wilbur were ready to go, their mother died, and they chose to stay at home with their father.

At an early age the boys were interested in making and operating mechanical toys. One especially never ceased to give them delight. It was a toy air-ship that their father brought home to them one day. They called it "The Bat,"

and used it as a model for many that they made themselves.

As they grew up the boys had much practice in making mechanical devices, and when they had to earn their living they took up business along those lines. They began the manufacture of bicycles with a safety-brake of which they were the inventors.

They were not successful business men, however, for they were more intent upon inventing something new than upon making and selling bicycles or any other article of commerce. They were especially interested in flying-machines, and before long they began the serious and intense study of air navigation.

Their interest was increased by the remarkable achievement of Professor Samuel Pierpont Langley, who made a machine that flew over the Potomac River, unattended, more than a half-mile in a minute and a half. This successful experiment was made in 1896. Seven years later Professor Langley finished a man-carrying machine, but when he attempted to launch it from the roof of a house-boat on the Potomac, his assistant acting as pilot, the launching-gear failed to work, and the machine fell into the water.

In 1900 the Wright brothers built an air-ship which they could control from the ground as they would a kite, by use of cords. Encouraged by their progress, they continued to work on the great problem, and their reward was not long in coming. On December 17, 1903, Orville Wright

took a seat in his airplane, turned on the power, and moved through the air for twelve seconds. For the first time in all history a machine, propelled by its own motive power

The First Flight by Man with a Motor-Driven Heavier-than-Air Machine at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, December 17, 1903. Orville Wright in the Machine, Wilbur Running Alongside of It.

and carrying a man, had risen from the earth and made a safe return.

About two years later (1905) when the two brothers flew twelve miles at a height of about one hundred feet, there was no question about their success.

The airplane is now in regular use to carry mail between large cities, and is being employed for the transportation of freight and passengers.

Some Things to Think About

1. Tell what you can about the early life of the Wright brothers.
2. What was the remarkable achievement of Professor Langley, and what effect did it have upon them?

3. Give an account of the successful flight made by Orville Wright in 1903.
4. How has the great invention of the airplane affected the life of the world?
5. What do you admire in the Wright brothers?

V

SCIENCE AND INVENTION BRING GREAT CHANGES IN THE LIFE OF THE FARMER

Nowhere has the advance of science and invention been more marked than in agriculture. By the help of science the farmer can find out what kind of plant-food the soil of his farm contains, and how to enrich the soil by using the right kind of fertilizer. With this knowledge he can be sure of harvesting abundant crops, provided there is sufficient rainfall or good irrigation.

United States Mail Rural Motor-Truck Service.

Inventions which save labor in breaking up the soil and in harvesting crops have been equally helpful to him. By cheapening the cost of production, they have greatly lowered the price of wheat, corn, and other kinds of food which grow on the farm.

The farmer of to-day has many other advantages over those who tilled the soil a century ago. There are good

roads in all parts of the country over which produce can be easily carried to market. Millions of dollars have been spent to build them and keep them in repair. Good roads, quick service, and convenient markets mean greater ease and comfort for those who live on farms. Automobiles and trucks by the hundred thousand are now in constant use by farmers throughout the country, and for those who do not own automobiles the trolleys give good service in reaching shopping centres.

Farmer Listening to Market and Weather Reports on Radio.

With improved roads and automobiles, there is also daily mail service, by rural free delivery, which carries mail almost to the farmer's door. He is thus kept more closely in touch with friends through correspondence and with what is going on in the world through his daily newspaper.

Still another agency, the telephone, gives him easy communication with neighbors, and also with more distant friends. In many ways the farmer lives a broader, if not larger, life than his great-grandfather, who was to

a great extent cut off from close contact with any but those of his own family.

LUTHER BURBANK, PLANT WIZARD, ACCOMPLISHES MARVELS IN THE PROPAGATION OF PLANTS AND IN THE INCREASE OF FOOD PRODUCTION

The science of agriculture has advanced not only by enrichment of soil and inventions of new machinery but in a most surprising way by a process of perfecting seeds and of creating new forms of plant life. The result has vastly increased the amount of food production.

The man who has done more than any other in this field of science is Luther Burbank. He was born in Lancaster, Massachusetts, March 7, 1849, in a house where blossoming plants were constant companions, either in the gardens in summer or in the window-boxes in winter.

He seems to have inherited his mother's love of flowers, for we are told that even in his cradle he handled them tenderly, never crushing or dropping a flower, but gently holding it in his tiny fingers until its bloom and fragrance were gone. And when a petal fell he would try to put it back again in its place. When he was just old enough to toddle about, he was given a lobster cactus in a pot, which he fondly hugged for hours at a time as he trudged through the house and the garden. From earliest childhood flowers and plants were to him playmates and companions, and with increasing years his devotion deepened almost to a passion.

At fifteen he entered Lancaster Academy, three miles from his home, walking back and forth every day. Here he was a good student and was liked by his teachers and classmates. He joined his playmates in their sports and games, but he enjoyed far more the companionship of plants and flowers.

Luther Burbank.

He was fond of books and read many from his father's library and from the public library in Lancaster, always preferring those on nature or science, especially when they told about the life and habits of plants.

Although he read with eager interest, he did not neglect his home duties, which were such as usually fall to the lot of a farmer boy. He drove the cows to pasture, fed the chickens, brought wood, pulled weeds, and was helpful in many other ways.

During summer vacations he worked in his uncle's plough factory in Worcester, Massachusetts, and was always a good worker, but he longed for an outdoor life, and took up market-gardening and seed-raising. This was the beginning of his wonderful career in the breeding of plants. His first experiment to attract public attention was the Burbank potato, which has produced, in money-value, more than $20,000,000.

This absorbing work met with an unpleasant interruption one very hot July day when he had a partial sunstroke. But even this experience was a step in advance, for to avoid a repetition, he sought another field of labor, where the soil and climate would be better suited to the breeding of plants. He went to California. With $150 in cash he made the journey in 1875, and settled about fifty miles north of San Francisco.

At that time he was slender and his health far from robust, but his appearance was no measure of his strength and endurance. Both were put to a severe test by the trials and hardships he passed through. He sought regular work, but could not find it. He spent his money to the last cent. Lack of food brought him to the edge of starvation and illness near unto death. But he would not give up.

In the soft climate, his health improved, and by working at odd jobs he at last saved money enough to buy a plot of land at Santa Rosa. Here he began

the nursery which later made him famous, and the little house that he built is still most attractive with its vine-covered walls.

After many years as a successful nurseryman, Luther Burbank gave up the business in 1893 in order to devote himself to plant-breeding, which had, by degrees, become an absorbing interest. His purpose was twofold: (1) to increase the quantity and improve the quality of food for men and animals and (2) to make the world of plants and flowers more beautiful.

Burbank's Spineless Cactus Slab, with Fruit in Stages of Ripening.

The energy and earnestness with which he set to work soon produced remarkable results. The reports of his wonderful productions of fruits and nuts and of flowers and plants read like fairy-tales. Who, for instance, before Burbank, ever imagined cobless corn, stoneless plums, or seedless grapes? And can we be thinking straight when we talk about white blackberries? He also has produced a blackberry-plant which is so large that it will bear more than a

bushel of berries in a single season, and a strawberry-plant that will bear strawberries through the whole summer.

His most marvellous achievement, however, is the spineless cactus. In its natural form the plant grows in enormous quantity on vast, dry plains where almost nothing else will grow, but countless spines, thorns, and needles make it useless to man or beast.

Burbank began experimenting with various kinds of cactus plants with the double purpose of breeding out all the spines and needles and thorns and of increasing the size of the plant as well as improving its quality.

After ten years of patient effort and skilful selection and cross-breeding he was rewarded with the stupendous satisfaction of growing a giant cactus, eight feet high, with great leaves ten to twenty inches long, six to twelve inches wide, and an inch or more thick. And not a spine, thorn, or needle was on branch or leaf or fruit.

This new cactus was the marvellous creation of Luther Burbank's brain and hand. It supplies excellent food for man and forage for cattle and poultry. Moreover, a marked increase in both the quality and the quantity of milk has resulted where cows have been fed upon it.

When we call to mind the important fact that in the West there are millions of acres of arid land which produce almost nothing but cactus, we realize how greatly this creation of Luther Burbank will increase the supply of food and forage in this country alone. But since the area of

arid and desert land in the world exceeds by 6,000 square miles the entire area of the United States, the benefit is impossible to compute.

Said Mr. Burbank, when speaking of this vast increase in the world's food-supply: "The population of the globe may be doubled, and yet, in the immediate food of the cactus-plant itself and in the food animals which may be raised upon it, there would still be enough for all."

It is given to few men to do so much for their generation.

Some Things to Think About

1. How have labor-saving inventions aided the farmer? Name other advantages which the farmers of to-day have over those who tilled the soil a century ago.
2. Tell what you can about Luther Burbank's early life.
3. Why did he go to California, and what trials and hardships did he endure there?
4. Tell as much as you can about his wonderful creations in plant breeding.
5. What marvellous transformation has he made in the cactus-plant?

CHAPTER XXIX

RECENT LEADERS IN THE SOCIAL AND POLITICAL LIFE OF OUR COUNTRY

I

THEODORE ROOSEVELT STANDS FOR THE "SQUARE DEAL"

With the opening of the twentieth century our position among the nations of the world had become one of great influence. This was due in a large measure to our remarkable increase in wealth and population. During the last thirty years of the nineteenth century our growth in agriculture, industry, mining, and railroad construction had been enormous. Great changes caused by this growth had brought with them many big problems. The most prominent leader in solving them was Theodore Roosevelt.

AS A BOY ROOSEVELT FIGHTS FOR HEALTH

He was born October 27, 1858, in New York City, one of four children, two boys and two girls. In later years he wrote, "My father was the best man I ever knew"; and of his mother he said: "She was a sweet, gracious, beautiful Southern woman." For both of them the boy had a deep affection.

Since his father was a man of wealth, Theodore did not

have the handicap of poverty against which some of our American boys had to struggle in rising to leadership. But he had an uphill fight with a worse enemy, poor health, for as a child he was frail and delicate, and from his early years suffered keenly from asthma, which often kept him from sleeping, except as he was propped up in bed.

"One of my early memories," he writes, "is of my father walking up and down the room with me in his arms at night, when I was a very small person, and of sitting up in bed gasping, with my father and mother trying to help me." But of the torture from this insistent disease he never complained.

To help overcome the weakness of Theodore's constitution, his father fitted up a gymnasium in the Roosevelt home, and said to his son: "Theodore, you have the brains, but brains are of comparatively little use without the body. You have got to make your body, and it lies with you to make it. It's dull, hard work, but you can do it." And Theodore began the fight.

Because he was not strong, he could not play on equal terms with other boys of his age, nor could he attend school much. He had to be taught by tutors at home. However, he put his time to good uses, learning many things not in a school course. He not only studied animals and birds; he learned to skin them and stuff them for his museum, called by him "The Roosevelt Museum of Natural History."

His memory was good, and he was a great reader. Through books he lived gloriously with the knights and heroes of other days, and revelled in the old ballads and stories of adventure. His imagination was fired, and he longed, like the warriors of old, to do great deeds. He learned that heroic men must be strong in body as in will, since they must be ready to endure endless toil and hardship, and face death, if need be, without shrinking.

Spurred on by a noble desire, young Theodore therefore determined to do all in his power to build up for himself a strong body. He not only took his gymnastic exercises regularly and faithfully day by day, but he spent much time out-of-doors. He enjoyed rowing, especially when the wind was high, making it hard for him to guide his boat over the rough waters. He liked the excitement and the hard pull. Sailing was too tame for him. Whatever the task he set for himself, work or play, he was persistent. "It is dogged that does it" was a favorite maxim of his in boyhood days and throughout the years of manhood.

He entered Harvard in 1877 and was graduated in 1881, a few months before he was twenty-two.

Before this time his father had died, leaving him sufficient property to enable him to live in comfort without working. But Theodore Roosevelt could not live a life of idleness and selfish ease. He believed that he should use his strength and money in service for the welfare of others as well as for himself, and he chose to go into political life.

In 1881, the year that he left college, he won his election to the New York legislature, where he served for three successive terms

IN THE OUTDOOR LIFE OF A DAKOTA RANCH ROOSEVELT SEEKS ROBUST HEALTH

In 1883 Roosevelt had a return of asthma, and seeking a dry climate and a vigorous outdoor life, he went to the Dakota country. He wanted to hunt buffaloes and other big game, and to share the hard, rough experiences of the cowboys in the Far West.

Theodore Roosevelt, Twenty-one Years of Age, and His Brother Elliott Roosevelt, One Year Younger.

Chicago, July, 1880, on the way to a hunting-trip.

On reaching the Chimney Butte Ranch, which he had made arrangements to occupy, he found that the house consisted of only one room, with a table, three bunks, and three chairs. Later he bought the Elkhorn Ranch, about forty miles away, and built his own log house, where he could live in more comfort.

Of this rough, free life on the plains of the great Northwest, Roosevelt wrote later: "In that land we led a hardy life with horse and with rifle. We worked under the scorching midsummer sun, where the wide plains shimmered and wavered in the heat; and we knew the freezing misery of riding night-guard round the cattle in the late fall round-up. . . . We knew toil and hardship and hunger and thirst; and we saw men die violent deaths as they worked among the horses and cattle, or fought in evil feuds with one another; but we felt the heat of hardy life in our veins, and ours was the glory of work and the joy of living."

"The glory of work and the joy of living" briefly sum up what ranch life meant to Roosevelt. The cowboys were then inclined to hold in scorn the man who came from Eastern cities, and called him a "tenderfoot," but they soon learned that Roosevelt was no "tenderfoot." He shot as well as their best marksmen; he was a good horseman; he shared the bad food and the dangers and hardships without complaint; and above all he was a man of unflinching courage.

He joined other fearless men in going sometimes 200 or 300 miles to hunt deer, bears, buffaloes, and other big game; he sometimes rode 100 miles after lost horses. He galloped in search of cattle and helped in the round-up and the branding. On one occasion the spirited bronco he was riding bucked him off and broke his arm. At another time his horse fell backward on him and broke his shoulder.

As no surgeon could be reached, there was nothing to do at such times but to remount and go on with the day's work, trusting nature to mend the break.

Roosevelt did his share of the work about the ranch-house, such as feeding the pigs, chopping cottonwood for fuel, and caring for his own horse. Sometimes he even did his washing.

For a good part of every year for six years Roosevelt remained in the Dakota country and then returned to New York City with a vigorous body, a fearless spirit, and a ready mind, prepared to take up whatever duties might fall to his lot.

ROOSEVELT RISES RAPIDLY FROM CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSIONER TO THE PRESIDENCY

A call to public service soon came to him, for in 1889 he was appointed on the Civil Service Commission; in 1895 he became police commissioner in New York City; and in 1897 he went to Washington as assistant secretary of the navy. While holding this office he took a keen interest in strengthening the navy, and set out, by increased target practice, to secure better marksmanship on the part of the sailors.

When the war with Spain broke out in 1898, he resigned as assistant secretary of the navy and raised a volunteer regiment of cavalry. His cowboy friends had not forgotten him. They rallied to his standard in such numbers that

the regiment was known as the "Rough Riders," although it included also men from Eastern colleges and from various walks of life. The "Rough Riders" so distinguished themselves in the fighting in Cuba that at the end of the war Colonel Roosevelt as their leader was a national hero.

In 1898 he was elected governor of New York. Two years later he wished a re-election, but was persuaded by urgent demand from Republicans throughout the country to accept the nomination of the Republican party for vice-president. Being elected, he became vice-president in 1901, and after the death of President McKinley in September of that year, succeeded to the presidency.

ROOSEVELT CHAMPIONS A POLICY OF IRRIGATION, AND FIGHTS FOR THE PRESERVATION OF OUR NATURAL RESOURCES

Soon after becoming President, Roosevelt's attention was called to the vast areas of the West that were waste land through lack of rainfall and of irrigation. In his first message to Congress he drew attention to the matter, declaring, "The forest and water problems are perhaps the most vital internal problems of the United States," and throughout his administration he continued most active in reclaiming arid areas by irrigation. Many large projects were started during his term of office as President.

Closely connected with rainfall and irrigation is the preservation and extension of forests. To these problems

President Roosevelt gave close and thoughtful attention. His belief was that our forests should not be wasted by private speculators for their own gain, as had long been the case, but that they should be preserved by the nation in the interest of the people as a whole. He therefore from time to time added to them large regions of forest-covered land, and also adopted measures to prevent destruction from forest-fires. Roads and pathways were cut through the national forests, and watch-towers and telegraph-lines constructed, making it possible for the forest-rangers to detect fires quickly and prevent them from spreading.

ROOSEVELT TAKES THE LEAD FOR ARBITRATION IN SETTLING THE COAL STRIKE OF 1902

Another important service that Roosevelt rendered his country was the part he took in the settlement of the coal strike of 1902. It began in May, and when it continued until early autumn without prospect of settlement, the people grew serious and anxious. Without coal there would be suffering in homes and business offices; factories would have to shut down; and transportation by rail would halt.

Although President Roosevelt was without any legal authority in the matter, he brought the great power of his office to bear upon the threatening situation. Having called together representatives of the mine-owners and the miners, he persuaded them to agree to have the strike dispute arbitrated, both sides promising in advance to accept any de-

cision the board of arbitrators might reach after due investigation. The settlement brought great relief to the nation.

Roosevelt's position in 1902 toward the mine-owners and the workers in the mines was a good example of his attitude toward labor-unions and business corporations. He had a keen sense of right and fair play. As he himself said, he believed in the "square deal." "The labor-unions shall have a square deal," he said, "and the corporations shall have a square deal." He insisted upon justice for the rich man and the poor man alike, declaring that each should come under the rule of law, reason, and right.

ROOSEVELT MAKES IT POSSIBLE FOR THE UNITED STATES TO CONSTRUCT THE PANAMA CANAL

Some historians believe that Roosevelt's greatest achievement was the building of the Panama Canal, since to him more than to all others was due the completion of this wonderful engineering feat. For years thoughtful Americans had discussed the need of a canal across the isthmus which so narrowly separated the two oceans. After the close of the Spanish-American War, when we had gained possession of Porto Rico and had taken Cuba under our protection, the need of such a canal, to be built and controlled by our own people, was felt more deeply than ever.

Long before definite steps were taken by our government toward realizing this project, a French company had

attempted the construction of such a canal, but after the loss of $278,000,000 and the lives of thousands of laborers, it had given up the enterprise.

From a painting by Thornton Oakley.

Uniting the Atlantic and the Pacific.
President Roosevelt, in 1906, personally inspected the Panama Canal work.

Against powerful opposition President Roosevelt was able to secure the passing by Congress of the Isthmian Canal Act in June, 1902. This law gave the President power to purchase the unfinished Panama Canal at a cost not to exceed $40,000,000, and also to acquire by treaty a strip of land, not less than six miles wide, extending across the isthmus. Within this strip, or zone, the United States was to construct, operate, and protect the canal.

In accordance with this law a treaty was made with Panama and $40,000,000 paid to the French company.

The work of construction was begun in 1904. In 1914 the Panama Canal was opened to the commerce of the world.

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Theodore Roosevelt Reviewing American Troops Prior to Their Embarking for Europe in the World War.

ROOSEVELT AS A PRIVATE CITIZEN

Roosevelt's presidency ended on March 4, 1909, but his influence was never greater than during the last few years of his life. Amid the issues arising from the World War he constantly aroused, by his stirring appeals, the loyalty of his fellow citizens. His death at Oyster Bay, on January 6, 1919, brought deep grief throughout America.

His patriotism was unbounded, and he had sublime faith

in the power and opportunity of his country for world service. This was beautifully recorded in his own words: "We here in America hold in our hands the hope of the world, the fate of the coming years, and shame and disgrace will be ours if in our eyes the light of high resolve is dimmed, if we trail in the dust the golden hope of men."

Some Things to Think About

1. How did Roosevelt overcome the handicap of a frail body in his boyhood days?
2. How did his reading influence his life?
3. Discuss his life at the ranch in the Dakota country as an element in his education.
4. What did Roosevelt do for irrigation and for the preservation of our natural resources?
5. What part did he take in the settlement of the coal strike in 1902?
6. What did he say about the "square deal," and what did he mean?
7. How did he make it possible for the United States to build the Panama Canal? What is its importance to us and to the other nations of the world?
8. What do you admire most in Roosevelt's character?

II

Frances E. Willard Devotes Her Life to the Cause of Temperance

One of the most striking features of this new age is the place that women occupy in public life, for they fill an important part in industry, in the professions, and in the general work carried on for the people's welfare. Since the days of the spinning-wheel and home manufactures the

change has come about gradually. When the spinning-machine, the power-loom, and other large and costly machines were set up in the factory, women followed, and did there what they had formerly done in the home.

This meant more than a simple transfer of activity. It gave rise to a new situation, for as long as mothers and daughters had worked at home, they were not paid in money; but when they went into the factory to work, they became wage-earners.

With freedom of industrial opportunity then followed advancement in public education. Women now have advantages in higher education equal to those of men, and compete with them in many fields of service. Thousands of women are teachers in our high schools and colleges; many are college professors; others are lawyers and physicians; and some are filling political offices in city, state, and national government.

Among the first women to be known by the whole nation was Frances E. Willard. She was born on September 28, 1839, in Churchville, New York. When she was seven years old the family decided to go West, and in three white-hooded prairie-schooners they made a journey of four weeks to Wisconsin. There they settled on the beautiful banks of Rock River and built a simple dwelling, which they called "Forest Home."

The Willard children had few playmates because settlers were few and far between; but the household was a

happy one, since all, old and young alike, enjoyed the free outdoor life in close touch with nature.

Frances was fond of reading, and by the time she was fourteen had read all the books owned in the family, among them the Bible, plays of Shakespeare, "Pilgrim's Progress," and some biographies and histories.

Frances E. Willard.

It was fortunate for this active-minded girl that about that time a schoolhouse was built only a mile from her home. She attended this school for a year, then went for some months to another in the village of Janesville, near by, and after that spent a year in Milwaukee Female College. Here she did good work, and at nineteen entered Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, where she prepared herself for teaching.

She was a gifted woman and enjoyed working with young people, but gave up her profession to join in a broader movement that was then engaging much public attention. It was the cause of temperance, and it is as a worker in that cause that she is best known to us.

In 1874 she was secretary of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union—a national body—and five years later its president. In 1888 she was elected president of the World's Christian Temperance Union.

She was a good speaker and a hard worker. In one year she travelled more than 30,000 miles, speaking in every state in the Union. During a period of twelve years she made one speech a day, on an average, allowing herself only six weeks of rest in a year. She spent this in her quiet home—Rest Cottage—with her mother.

Her life was one of unselfish devotion to others. She carried joy and inspiration wherever she went, touching hearts by her kindness and quickening hope in all who came under her personal influence. Said a cultivated Southern woman, after hearing her speak: "The first time I heard her I lay awake all night for sheer gladness. It was such a wonderful revelation to me that a woman like Miss Willard could exist. I thanked God and took courage for humanity."

Such was the power of her remarkable personality that the eyes of the nation were opened to the great waste of the drink evil and to the poverty and suffering it caused. Temperance organizations continued the work she had so ably forwarded, and through their influence, after many years of unceasing effort, Congress in 1917 proposed an amendment to the Constitution, making unlawful the manufacture or sale of intoxicating liquors. This amendment—the Eighteenth—became a part of the Constitution early in 1919.

Some Things to Think About

1. Compare the work women do now with that of our great-grandmothers. What has brought about the great change?
2. Tell all you can about the hard work of Frances E. Willard.
3. What did a cultivated woman say about her?
4. What was her most important achievement?

III

CLARA BARTON ORGANIZES THE AMERICAN RED CROSS

The leader of another great movement, the American Red Cross, was Clara Barton. On Christmas Day, 1821, in Oxford, Massachusetts, was born the child whose life was to bring comfort into so many other lives. As a girl she was shy, and sensitive to all forms of suffering, but she was fond of daring sports, and could run and ride like a boy. "When five years old," she said, "I rode wild horses like a little Mexican."

Clara Barton.

Civil War nurse and first president of the American Red Cross.

When only eleven, she had her first experience in that service which twenty-five years later became her life-work. At a barn-raising on her father's farm, her brother David took a dare and climbed to the peak of the building to fasten the rafters to the ridge-pole. A board broke under his

feet and, in falling, his body struck some heavy timbers. For two years he was a helpless cripple, and Clara was his tender nurse. During all that time the faithful little sister never left his bedside but for one half-day.

At fifteen years she became a teacher in a public school, but after eighteen years of successful experience she gave up teaching and took a position in the Patent Office at Washington, little thinking that this would lead to her great life-work.

When the Civil War broke out, the first soldiers to arrive in Washington (April, 1861) were from Massachusetts, near Clara Barton's old home. They had been attacked by a mob in Baltimore, and many were wounded, among them some that she had known in her girlhood days. In the letter she wrote home, she said: "We bound their wounds and fed them." Thus began her active service in the war.

By her remarkable fitness for the work, she at once became the centre of relief in Washington. To her flocked the suffering and needy soldiers, and during the long, hot weeks of summer she collected, stored, and gave out supplies. She also went to the docks and met wounded soldiers returning from the ranks, took them to the hospital, and bathed their neglected wounds.

Not content with waiting at the docks, she wanted to go to the wounded soldiers on the battle-field and give aid as soon as possible after they had fallen. She could not

bear to think that many must suffer and even die without care; but it was months before she could get permission from the government to go within the lines. When, after

From a drawing by F. C. Yohn.

The Red Cross in War-Time.

many rebuffs, she was at last granted passports, she was so overcome that she wept tears of joy.

From then until the war ended she gave herself unsparingly to the wounded and dying on the battle-field. No demand was too great, no service was too small, if it brought comfort to the suffering soldiers. They called her "The Angel of the Battle-field."

When the war was over, she spent four years in trying to locate the 40,000 soldiers who were "missing." She

worked so hard that she had to take a rest, and she went to Europe. While she was there the Franco-Prussian War broke out, and she was sought by the leaders of the International Red Cross to help in the work of mercy, for the fame of her labors in the Civil War had gone before her.

Again she became "the angel of the battle-field," and her slight figure, in plain dark dress, was a familiar sight in the war region. She might be easing a fallen soldier; she might be making her way through the shattered streets of stricken cities; or she might be entering bombarded houses and villages to seek out the starving, half-clothed women and children. She was always engaged in some service of love and sympathy.

Believing that the United States should join in the work of mercy in which twenty-two nations were already actively organized, she came home with the hope of accomplishing that end. It did not happen all at once, but through her influence the American Red Cross was organized in 1886, and she became the first president.

We all know the emblem of the Red Cross, and we know it stands for gentle, loving, and skilful service to suffering humanity. Victims of pestilence, famine, earthquake, floods, and other calamities have reason to love it, but its greatest work has been for the soldier on the battle-field. There the wounded, far from the tender ministries of home, are gathered in the arms of mercy and tended by

faithful nurses of the Red Cross, which has been called "the greatest mother in the world."

Clara Barton died in 1912, but the great work she organized has continued to grow under other leadership, and to be supported always by loyal workers.

In her devotion during the storm and stress of war Clara Barton by no means stood alone. In the World War as in our Civil War and in the Revolution American women were keenly responsive to the needs of the country and were untiring in their service. They were as comrades to their husbands, brothers, and sons who had enlisted for field service in the army.

SOME THINGS TO THINK ABOUT

1. Tell about Clara Barton's nursing her brother when she was a young girl.
2. Why did she feel that she must go to the battle-field and aid the men who had fallen there?
3. What can you tell about the great work of the American Red Cross, of which Clara Barton was the first president?

IV

ANNA HOWARD SHAW BECOMES A LEADER IN THE WOMAN-SUFFRAGE CAUSE

A third great movement in which women took the leading part was the woman-suffrage cause. Well-known pioneers in this movement were Mrs. Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Miss Susan B. Anthony. For very many years these two women worked together with lasting results for the good of

the cause they loved so well. In 1868 they united in publishing a newspaper favoring woman suffrage, and in the following year they founded the National Woman's Association.

These lifelong friends were well adapted to supplement each other's work, for while Mrs. Stanton was strong as a writer, Miss Anthony excelled as a business manager.

When, however, the two veteran workers had become less active by reason of advancing years, other leaders took their places. One of these was Anna Howard Shaw. Born in Scotland on February 14, 1847, Anna Howard Shaw came at four years of age, with other members of the Shaw household, to America, where their first home was in New England.

When Anna was twelve, the family joined the westward movement, and, making the journey in an ox-cart, settled in northern Michigan in an old log cabin a hundred miles from any railroad and six miles from the nearest neighbor. The cabin had a big fireplace made of mud and stones, but there were only holes in the walls for windows and doors.

There were no books except the few the family had brought with them, and these Anna read and reread until, as she said, she knew them all by heart.

She liked to wander into the woods and stay for hours, reading and thinking and dreaming about what she would do when she became a woman. One day when she re-

turned, her father rebuked her, saying: "A girl who will run away to the woods and stay all day is of no account. I suppose we shall never be able to do anything with you. You are the black sheep of the family."

Deeply hurt, Anna replied: "Some day you will take all that back. I am going to study and study, and some day I shall go to college. And when I am through I shall make money—lots of money. I shall be worth $10,000."

But her visions went far beyond college days, for her great hope was to be a preacher, and often in the woods she would preach childish sermons with only animals and birds to hear the sound of her voice.

The arrival of other families gradually made a settlement, and a school was opened, which Anna attended at one time for three months. At fifteen she became a teacher, with a salary of two dollars a week and board, going from one family to another and staying two weeks in each place. The intervals of teaching were spent in helping on the farm, and for a time she attended a high school in Big Rapids.

After ten years of strenuous work she entered Albion College, in Albion, Michigan, when she was twenty-five. Although she had but eighteen dollars at that time, when she was graduated she had earned enough by lecturing and preaching to pay for her college course.

Still wishing to be a preacher, she became a student in the Theological School of Boston University. Since there was not the same opportunity of earning money by lecturing

and preaching that she had found in Michigan, she lived on milk and crackers for weeks at a time, her hunger never satisfied. "In my home in the wilderness," she said, "I had often heard wolves prowling around our door at night. Now, in Boston, I heard them even at high noon." But neither hunger nor loneliness could daunt her spirit.

Doctor Anna Howard Shaw.
She was preacher at two churches on Cape Cod, Massachusetts.

She finished her course in the university and a little later took up her duties as preacher at two churches on Cape Cod, Massachusetts.

Although successful in her work as preacher, the field of her service was too small. She wanted to minister to the bodily as well as to the spiritual needs of her people, and, before the end of her seven years of service on Cape Cod, she had taken the degree of M.D. in Boston University.

While attending the medical school she had been a volunteer physician and nurse in the Boston slums. What she saw while on duty there led to the latest expression of her life-work. The changed conditions affecting women, in vast and ever-increasing numbers, as wage-earners, had developed new problems. The more she thought about these

new problems, the more confident she was that women should work side by side with men in solving them, and to do this they should share equally with men the responsibilities of citizenship. In other words, she believed that women as well as men should be allowed to vote at the polls.

With her mind clearly made up on this question, she was easily persuaded by the great leader of the Woman's Rights Movement, Susan B. Anthony, to devote her life to the cause of woman suffrage, or "*the* Cause," as she called it. From 1892 to 1904 she was vice-president of the National American Woman Suffrage Association, and from 1904 to 1915 its president. Under her leadership the movement made rapid and steady progress. It was her crowning work.

Her life was a happy one, her friendships were many, and her honors were great; but she always regarded her labors in the cause which was so near her heart as the best and most satisfactory part of her career. In her own words one may say: "Nothing bigger can come to a human being than to love a great cause more than life itself, and to have the privilege throughout life of working for that cause."

Wyoming was the first state to vote full suffrage to women. By degrees the movement grew, and many other states followed Wyoming in giving to women the same voting privileges as men. At last Congress proposed an amendment to the Constitution, providing for full suffrage

for women in all the states of the Union. In 1920, the year after Doctor Anna Howard Shaw died, this amendment—the Nineteenth—became a part of the Constitution.

Some Things to Think About

1. Give an account of Anna Howard Shaw's girlhood days.
2. What hard experience did she have while a student in Boston University?
3. Do you understand why she decided to devote her life to the cause of woman suffrage?
4. Why is the privilege of voting very important in a republic like ours?

V

WOODROW WILSON IS LEADER AND SPOKESMAN FOR AMERICA IN THE WORLD WAR

Our position as a world-power, which was due partly to our success in the war with Spain and to the growing value of our natural resources, was emphasized by the events of the World War.

Many thoughtful people in America and in other countries had come to hope and believe that there would never be another great war; that differences arising among nations would be settled by peaceful methods. But in the summer of 1914 there broke out in Europe the most terrible war of all history. On the first day of August, Germany declared war upon Russia and two days later upon France. Within ten days seven nations had sent their armies to the field

of battle—Germany and Austria on one side, and Russia, France, England, Serbia, and Belgium on the other.

Although the battle-ground was in Europe, before the struggle ended nearly every civilized nation of the world was taking some part in it, and many million men, women, and children lost their lives.

When the war began, Woodrow Wilson was the President of the United States. Up to that time his life, except when he was governor of New Jersey, had been largely that of a scholar, but he had shown also that he could fight for a cause, and now the people looked earnestly to him for leadership.

WOODROW WILSON PREPARES FOR LEADERSHIP

This son of a Presbyterian clergyman was born on December 28, 1856, at Staunton, Virginia. Two years later the family moved to Augusta, Georgia.

From boyhood, he and his father were always good comrades, and the home life did much to aid the boy's mental growth. Gathered about the fireside in the evening, the family read together good English novels and other books of value.

This was excellent preparation for an ambitious boy who had many bright visions of wonderful things he would do as a man.

At Princeton he took a lively interest in many college activities, including athletics and debating, and was promi-

nent in the student body. On graduating, he studied law in the University of Virginia, and won a prize in oratory, but after two years of practice in Atlanta, he gave up law to become a teacher. He took a special course in Johns Hopkins University, where he received the degree of Ph.D., and then made a brilliant reputation as a teacher of history and economics. In 1890 he was called to be a professor at Princeton, and twelve years later he was elected president of that university.

As a popular speaker on problems of government, he attracted the attention of leaders in the Democratic party, and was elected governor of New Jersey in 1910. In this new field of public service he showed such ability as a leader that in 1912 he was elected President of the United States.

There was no sign then that his term of office was to cover a period more important than any since the Civil War.

PRESIDENT WILSON FACES DIFFICULT PROBLEMS AT THE BEGINNING OF THE WORLD WAR

The World War was the outcome of a struggle for power in which Germany was trying to make herself mistress of the world. There had long been strained feeling between the Central Powers of Europe, that is, Germany and Austria, and what was called the "Triple Entente," which included England, France, and Russia. But the immediate cause was the assassination in Serbia of the Austrian crown

prince. On August 4, 1914, the powerful German army marched into Belgium because the easiest and quickest route to France passed through that country. The plan of the Kaiser and his generals was to conquer France, and then unite all their forces in a resistless attack upon Russia.

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Woodrow Wilson.

Before any great battle was fought, President Wilson issued a proclamation in which he advised all American citizens "to act and speak in the true spirit of friendliness to all concerned." This he believed was in accord with the policy which our country had always followed.

But bound up as our interests were in a thousand ways with our neighbors across the sea, their struggle was sure to affect us sooner or later. It was not long after the beginning of the war that England tried, by blockade, to prevent goods from reaching Germany either through her own ports or those of other countries that traded with her. Germany, in turn, declared that she would destroy all enemy vessels in the waters around the British Isles.

These blockades threatened to destroy much of our foreign trade, but they led to worse and unthought-of evils; for Germany, in February, 1915, began to use submarines, the first time that destructive vessels of this kind

were used in war. Within three months she torpedoed many vessels, among them passenger-ships of the great ocean lines, and some of these ships belonged to neutral countries.

In the face of such destruction of life and property, our government sent a note to Germany, earnestly declaring that the United States would hold her "strictly accountable" if any American vessel should be destroyed or any American lives lost.

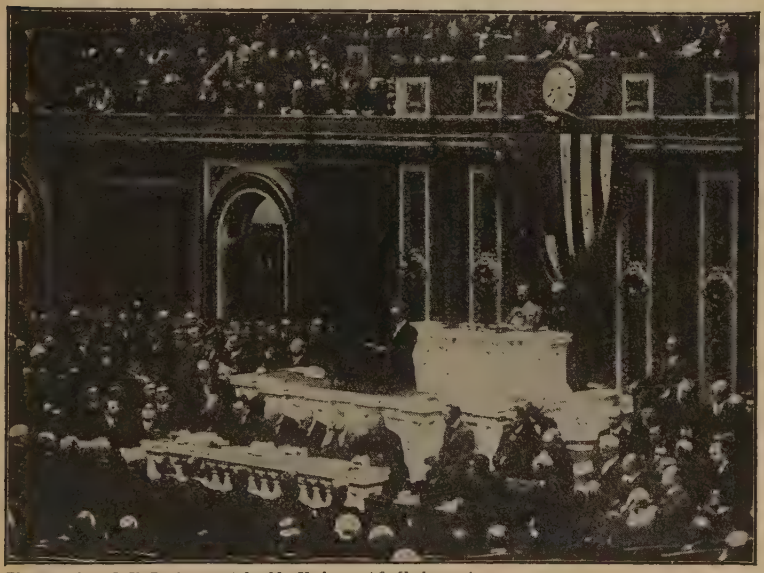
Yet during the next three months German submarines sank American vessels and destroyed American lives. On May 7, 1915, the Lusitania, an English passenger-ship, was sunk without warning on her way from New York to Liverpool. Of the 1,154 who lost their lives, 114 were Americans.

President Wilson, still wishing to avoid war, sent the German Government an emphatic note of protest, calling attention to the law of long standing among the nations that no merchant or passenger ship could be sunk at sea without warning and without providing for the safety of passengers and crew.

On August 19, 1915, another passenger-vessel, the Arabic, was torpedoed, with the loss of two American lives. This time, in answer to our protest, Germany replied that her submarine commanders had been ordered to make no attacks in future upon neutral merchant vessels which would endanger the lives of passengers and crews.

After a lapse of less than a year and a half, however,

Germany reversed this policy, and on January 31, 1917, gave notice that she would begin the next day to sink at sight, and without trying to save the lives of crews and



Photograph by C. V. Buck, copyrighted by Underwood & Underwood.

President Wilson Delivering His War Message to Congress, April 2, 1917.

passengers, *all* vessels she might find in extensive areas named by her, north and west of Europe and in the Mediterranean Sea.

Without further delay President Wilson dismissed the German ambassador at Washington and recalled our ambassador from Berlin.

Yet war did not follow at once. Not until about the middle of March, when it became known that Germany had

caused further loss of American lives by torpedoing three American vessels, was hope of peace entirely given up.

OUR COUNTRY ENTERS THE WAR

At a joint session of the Senate and the House of Representatives, held on April 2, President Wilson read a momentous message, in which he said, in effect, that Germany had forced us into war by first making war upon us. She had injured our commerce; she had destroyed our property; she had taken American lives. Congress therefore declared war upon Germany on April 6, 1917.

The war in Europe had been going on two years and eight months. Turkey and Bulgaria were now fighting on the side of Germany and Austria, while Italy and Roumania had joined England, France, and Russia. Millions of human lives had been lost, but the victory was not won, and the armies of Germany and Austria were still powerful.

Although our army and navy were too small to be of immediate service on the fighting-line, there were certain other ways in which we could co-operate with the Allies, as England, France, and the countries fighting on their side were called. For instance, we could lend money, furnish war-supplies, send raw materials for workers in mills and factories, and food for all. We could also build merchant ships in large numbers, and we could assist in fighting the submarine.

Of all the needs of the Allies, that of building ships

was the most pressing, for without ships they could not receive supplies. It was for this very reason that the Germans were attempting by submarines to destroy all shipping.

By the summer of 1918, 550,000 Americans were building

Launching of S. S. Tacoma.
In July, 1918, our shipyards produced over 631,000 tons of shipping.

ships, and in the month of July our shipyards produced over 631,000 tons of shipping. This was a remarkable output.

Six weeks after war was declared, Congress passed the Army Draft Bill as the first step toward raising an army. About 24,000,000 men in all, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, were registered during the war. From

these the government selected and trained 4,000,000 men for service in the American army. In the navy, in the marine corps, and in other forms of military and naval service there were about 800,000 more.

The Kaiser and his generals believed that American troops could not reach France in time to be of much use. But before the war ended 2,000,000 of our troops were in Europe, and we were sending them across the sea at the rate of 250,000 a month.

AMERICAN SOLDIERS HELP TO FIGHT THE GERMANS AND TO END THE WAR

Not long after reaching the front, our boys met the Germans in Belleau Wood, where the enemy was making a grand assault aimed at the capture of Paris. The Germans were only forty miles away from the French capital when American soldiers and a brigade of American marines held them up. The engagement, known as the battle of Château-Thierry, began on June 2 and lasted almost a month.

Although outnumbered—three, four, and at times even five to one—our boys fought stubbornly, week after week, until by the end of June (1918) they had driven every German soldier out of Belleau Wood.

This battle of Château-Thierry has been called the turning-point of the war. The heroic fighting of the American

marines and the American soldiers in Belleau Wood has never been surpassed in all history.

Within three weeks Marshal Foch, who had been placed

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American Troops Resting After Their Arrival in France.

in supreme command of all the allied armies, began (July 18) a series of tremendous attacks which did not end until Germany was defeated.

By the last of September the German armies were in full retreat, and in these last months of the war the American troops again fought bravely. They had to push their way through the Argonne Forest and cut the railroad in the rear of the Germans to prevent the enemy from getting food and other supplies. For forty-seven days a terrible struggle went on, but our boys won a decisive victory.

In this battle, the greatest ever fought by American soldiers, our army lost in killed, wounded, and missing more than 100,000 men. During the war our losses were nearly 303,000.

On November 11 an armistice was signed, and the Germans surrendered their armies and fleets. German military power was completely broken. The Kaiser, forced to give up his crown, escaped to Holland. Thus fell the German Empire. It was quickly followed by a republic.

During the war American valor, tested on a foreign field, had won deserved praise. Our boys surpassed the highest expectations, and not only our lives are made safer but our memories richer by their brave deeds on the fields of France.

THE WHOLE NATION EARNESTLY STRIVES FOR VICTORY

In time of war all who work for the good of the country are in a way soldiers. All can be at least loyal citizens, doing the duty that lies nearest them. In this war the whole nation was striving for victory. Farmers, business men, railroad operators, mechanics, unskilled laborers, and women and children were all enlisted in loyal service.

The American Red Cross did a wonderful work. You have learned elsewhere in how many ways this splendid organization relieves suffering. During the war it reached its largest usefulness, and drew into its service huge numbers

of workers, who longed to express their loyalty to the cause and to their country.

American boys and girls were no less loyal than our men and women. They saved money to buy thrift stamps;

Government Officers Superintending the Assembling of the Liberty Motors

they sold thrift stamps; and they took their part in the Liberty Loan campaigns. They cheerfully denied themselves certain kinds of food needed overseas. They planted and cared for millions of war gardens and thus raised food worth many million dollars. The girls also joined their mothers in making bandages for soldiers and garments for the thousands of French and Belgian children who had been driven from their homes in regions laid waste by the war.

The war cost the American people $22,000,000,000, or more than $1,000,000 an hour for a period of more than two years. Besides this amount expended, we loaned England, France, and their allies $10,000,000,000.

Our country played a large and worthy part in winning this war. As a people we were more united than we had ever been in any other war, and at its close America was fulfilling an important service to the world.

Let us hope that our moral greatness may equal our material power and that we may prove worthy of our trust. We can all help to do this by obeying the laws, by always standing for justice and fair play, and by doing, day by day, in an unselfish spirit, the duties which belong to all patriotic Americans.

Some Things to Think About

1. How did Woodrow Wilson as a boy and as a young man prepare for leadership?
2. What was his great problem as President at the beginning of the World War?
3. What right was America standing for in the dispute with Germany over the use of submarines?
4. Why did we finally enter the war?
5. What part did we play in ending the war? How important a part was it?
6. What were some of the costs of the war that can be estimated?
7. What place do we occupy among the nations of the world? Of what great service may we be to the world in the future?

THE TERRITORIAL GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER XXX

THE HERITAGE OF AMERICAN BOYS AND GIRLS TO-DAY

The foregoing chapters show clearly the great advance that we as a people have made in material wealth. But far more important is the using of that wealth in such a way as to help every citizen in the land to make the most he can of himself.

Discoveries in the field of medicine and public hygiene have taught us how to keep well and to develop our bodies. We have learned that we must eat pure food, breathe fresh air, exercise freely, and get plenty of rest and sleep. As a means to insure this end, the school department in many cities has employed trained nurses who look after pupils in school, and even go to their homes to advise their mothers how to keep the children well. This is done in the hope of preventing human waste.

In the interests of child welfare most of our states have passed compulsory-education laws and child-labor laws, which will give the children a chance for growth and prevent them from becoming wage-earners at too early an age.

For training and informing the mind and for develop-

ing right ideals of duty and service, the American people have made lavish provision in their schools, colleges, and universities. No other people have spent money so generously for the education of their children. In some states a complete system of tax-supported education makes it possible for boys and girls to begin at the kindergarten and continue through the college and university with little cost to themselves.

In the last forty or fifty years, under the direction of the United States Department of Agriculture, much attention has been given to special training for life on the farm. There are more than sixty agricultural colleges in the whole country, and also model farms and experiment stations in agriculture in every state in the Union.

Another movement is that which favors vocational or trade schools—that is, schools which give special training for modern industry. These are intended for those who do not wish to take the higher courses in college and university.

Just as noteworthy has been the extension of the higher education for women during the past fifty years. Women now have educational advantages equal to those of men, and have entered upon many occupations which until after the Civil War were closed to them. Women are doing more than they ever did before in the many forms of social welfare and public service which make for a finer and better community life.

Much has been done also for the care and training of the weak and helpless members of society. We have many institutions for the blind, the deaf, and mental defectives.

There is special instruction also for foreign-born adults who have come to our land. The aim is not only to teach them to speak and write English but to give them training in American customs and ideals and the duties of citizens in this great, free country.

Our social settlements, boys' clubs, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association, and many other organized groups open the door of opportunity to all who are willing to receive training and uplift. In almost countless ways, many of which were unknown one hundred years ago, kindly and sympathetic workers are giving friendly aid to those who will thereby be made better men and women.

Thus has our material wealth been used to make life better and more agreeable for us all.

Before leaving this story of our country I wish you would each think for a moment about the contrast between the comforts and opportunities of your life and those of the boys and girls of early colonial days. Their ways of living were very simple. In their homes, for example, they read by candle-light, and even, perhaps, helped to make the candles. You move a switch and your page is flooded with a bright, clear light. They had to run to the spring for

water and fetch it in a pail. You turn a faucet and a stream of water gushes forth.

How different also were their methods of travel and communication! A jaunt through the woods on horseback, or by sloop along a watercourse, was a long way to go to meet a friend. The lumbering stage-coach was tedious and expensive for a journey of greater length. Time and thought had to be given to the making of such visits. How is it with you? Interurban trolleys, express-trains, automobiles, and flying-machines await your pleasure.

Joy had to wait on patience when news from far-away friends was sought. By horse and foot it came with the slow methods of travel. Your letter can be carried a thousand miles by rail in perhaps a day; your telegraph message can be delivered in a few hours; or you can talk over the telephone almost without delay.

Think, too, of broadcasting the tones of the human voice, in speech or song, so that countless people in hundreds of cities, towns, villages, and country homes can hear almost as distinctly as though the speaker or the singer were in the same room! To those other boys and girls who listened mostly to the tones of church-bells, this wonderful experience, now so commonplace to us, would have seemed unbelievable.

When we read our morning or evening paper we learn the principal events that have taken place in any part of the civilized world within twenty-four hours. The tele-

graph, the telephone, the express-train, and the flying-machine make possible this rapid gathering of news. It requires but a day or even less to learn of important events occurring in distant lands and to get news which a century ago required many months.

Compare, also, our schools and those of colonial days. You would find it hard to give up your well-equipped and costly buildings, with their large, light, and airy rooms, for the one-room log cabins, without even a blackboard. If in imagination you will go into one of those one-room schools and look around, you will notice how few the books, how hard and uncomfortable the seats, how frosty in winter must be the window-panes, and you will feel grateful, perhaps, for the blessings you enjoy.

How wonderful would the motion-pictures seem to boys and girls of a hundred years ago! With what surprise would they see men and women of distant lands and of other times flitting across the screen, just as all appeared in days long gone by.

You are, indeed, living in a wonderful age. You have comforts and opportunities undreamed of by Washington or Lincoln and other great makers of our republic. These have come to you through the sweat and toil of self-sacrificing inventors and numberless workers of an earlier time; and they are your heritage from the past.

What will you do with this heritage? Will you accept and enjoy it without thought of its meaning? It all comes

to you without effort on your part; but where much is given, much, also, is required. This is the law of life. If you would make the most of yourself, you must obey this law in what you think, in what you say, in what you do.

You owe the best that you have and the best you can do to your school, your community, your state, and your country. Although you may not be able to do great things, you can be honest and true, and by doing well whatever is worth doing, you can make yourselves useful citizens. You can be loyal to your flag, to your country, and to your own highest ideal, always remembering that a great and good nation is made only of great and good men and women.

Some Things to Think About

1. Has a boy or girl a better opportunity to-day to be a good and useful citizen than in earlier days?
2. What does "Equality of Opportunity" mean to you? What things in our life tend toward giving equality of opportunity?
3. What obligation does your heritage of rights and privileges impose upon you? This is something every boy and girl should begin to think about.
4. How can you best fulfil the obligations in return for the rights which you enjoy?
5. In what ways can you be a patriotic American?

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES

President	Term of Office
George Washington	2 terms; 1789–1797.
John Adams	1 term; 1797–1801.
Thomas Jefferson	2 terms; 1801–1809.
James Madison	2 terms; 1809–1817.
James Monroe	2 terms; 1817–1825.
John Quincy Adams	1 term; 1825–1829.
Andrew Jackson	2 terms; 1829–1837.
Martin Van Buren	1 term; 1837–1841.
William Henry Harrison	1 month; 1841.
John Tyler	3 yrs. 11 mos.; 1841–1845.
James Knox Polk	1 term; 1845–1849.
Zachary Taylor	1 yr. 4 mos.; 1849, 1850.
Millard Fillmore	2 yrs. 8 mos.; 1850–1853.
Franklin Pierce	1 term; 1853–1857.
James Buchanan	1 term; 1857–1861.
Abraham Lincoln	1 term and 6 wks.; 1861–1865.
Andrew Johnson	3 yrs. 10 mos. 15 days; 1865–1869.
Ulysses Simpson Grant	2 terms; 1869–1877.
Rutherford Burchard Hayes	1 term; 1877–1881.
James Abram Garfield	6 mos. 15 days; 1881.
Chester Alan Arthur	3 yrs. 5 mos. 15 days; 1881–1885.
Grover Cleveland	1 term; 1885–1889.
Benjamin Harrison	1 term; 1889–1893.
Grover Cleveland	1 term; 1893–1897.
William McKinley	1 term, 6 mos. 10 days; 1897–1901.
Theodore Roosevelt	1 term, 3 yrs. 5 mos. 20 days; 1901–1909.
William Howard Taft	1 term; 1909–1913.
Woodrow Wilson	2 terms; 1913–1921.
Warren Gamaliel Harding	2 yrs. 4 mos. 29 days; 1921–1923.
Calvin Coolidge	1923–

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